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STANDING INFORMATION

REGARDING THE

OFFICIAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY

IN EACH DEPARTMENT,

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IN ILLUSTRATION OF THE YEARLY ADMINISTRATION REPORTS

PREPARED UNDER THE ORDERS OF GOVERNMENT.

BY

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ACTING SUB-SECRETARY TO THE BOARD OF REVENUE.

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THIS volume was originally issued in 1877, corrected to 31st March 1876. It is now re-issued, corrected to 31st March 1879. Some of the sections in the present issue are wholly new, and the whole volume has the advantage, not enjoyed by its predecessor, that most of the sections have before final appearance been submitted for the inspection and criticism of the heads of the departments concerned. The volume aims only at describing the machinery of the administration, and does not attempt to be either a gazetteer for geographical information or a book of reference for statistical purposes. If a few remarks or entries appear under either of those heads, it is only because neither a Presidency Gazetteer nor a volume of standing statistics have as yet appeared.

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GENERAL AND POLITICAL.

AREA, PHYSICAL FEATURES, CLIMATE, CHIEF STAPLES, AND LINGUISTIC DIVISIONS.

General description.

THE territory included within the Presidency of Fort Saint George, or the Madras Presidency, is the southernmost of the Indian provinces. The coast line extends on the east of the peninsula from Orissa in Bengal to Cape Comorin. On the west the narrow strip of country formed by the Native States of Travancore and Cochin gives the coast line from Cape Comorin as far as the town of Cochin. After that Madras territory again forms the coast line until the Bombay Presidency is reached at the northern extremity of the South Canara District. In the centre of the peninsula thus enclosed are the Nagpore country and Berar, the territories of the Nizam known generally as the Deccan, and the province of Mysore; but all the country south and east of Mysore belongs to the Madras Presidency.

Area.

The Presidency occupies an area of 139,698 square miles; but within this is included 1,383 square miles belonging to the Puducottah territory, which is situated in the middle of one of the Revenue districts.

Physical geography.

The Presidency has a coast line of about 1,700 miles, and consequently a large area of country but little elevated above the level of the sea. Mountain ranges run northward from Cape Comorin along the Western Coast, attaining an elevation in some parts of from 4,000 to nearly 9,000 feet. Ranges of hills follow also the general line of the East Coast; but these, as a rule, are of lower elevation than the Western Ghauts. The drainage of the peninsula is for the most part from west to east into the Bay of Bengal, the area of country drained by rivers running westward being only the narrow strip of territory between the Western Ghauts and the sea. As a rule the country slopes gradually from the eastern base of the western mountain chain

down to the Coromandel Coast, while the fall is sudden and precipitous on the western side of the mountains. The centre of the peninsula consists generally of undulating table-lands from 1,000 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea.

Influence of physical geography on climate.

The peculiar physical geography of the peninsula of India, with a huge mountain chain running from north to south along its western boundary, is of importance in regard to climate and the productions of the various districts. These hills have the effect of arresting the lower strata of rain clouds brought up from the Indian ocean by the periodical winds of the south-west monsoon, and of causing excessive rain precipitation on the narrow strip of coast line on the western side of the peninsula. Where the mountain range is of great height, as between Malabar and Coimbatore, the rain clouds are almost entirely diverted from the districts immediately below the mountains on the eastern side; and while the annual rainfall on the western side may be one hundred and fifty inches, not more than twenty inches will be registered on the eastern side, immediately within the influence of the mountain ranges. Where the mountain chain is of lower elevation, the rain clouds pass over the hills, and rain is precipitated in uncertain and varying amount over the peninsula to the east of the Western Ghauts; but, except in the northern districts, where the rainy season approximates to that of Bengal, the heaviest rainfall of the southern portion of the eastern division of the peninsula occurs during the period of the north-east monsoon. During the continuance of this monsoon, the western ranges of mountains have a similar effect in arresting the rain clouds, so that at the season of the year when the Carnatic is visited by heavy rain, the Western Coast Districts enjoy fine clear weather.

Ditto on production.

To the physical barrier of the Western Ghauts must be attributed not only the vast differences of climate, but also those of the nature of the productions, in the eastern and western divisions of the peninsula. In the former division the uncertainty and capricious character of the rainfall has taught the cultivators of the soil the necessity of making provision for the storage of water for irrigation purposes, and innumerable tanks or reservoirs, scattered throughout the country, are the result. On the western side of the mountains, however, the necessity for such works has never arisen. There the periodical rains fall with great regularity as to time and quantity, and the earth produces so abundantly that, although in certain exceptional years there may be partial failures of crops, absolute agricultural distress, as a result of bad seasons, is quite unknown. Only three of the twenty-one districts of which the Madras Presidency is composed lie within the influence of the never-failing rains of the south-west monsoon. In the remaining eighteen districts nature demands the

assistance of art in the collection, storage, and distribution of the rain-supply. In some of these eighteen districts, however, as in the northern coast area, the periodic rains fall more regularly than in others, giving them thus an advantage. In several of these also the rivers running eastward, swelled by the south-west monsoon rains, form an additional source of irrigation.

Rainfall throughout the Presidency.

The following table giving the mean average rainfall in each district for a recent period of four years will throw light on the normal climate of the Presidency :—

Average Rainfall in Districts of Madras Presidency—Mean of Four Years, 1870–73.

Districts.	Number of Gauge-stations.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.		June.		July.	
		Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.
Bellary	17	0·09	0·25	0·01	0·00	0·07	0·25	0·70	1·50	2·26	4·25	2·71	6·25	2·05	5·75
Chingleput ...	7	1·32	1·25	2·64	1·50	0·39	0·75	0·61	0·75	1·99	1·25	2·23	4·75	3·77	8·50
Coimbatore ...	10	0·41	0·50	0·75	1·25	0·58	1·00	2·00	3·50	2·76	4·50	2·24	4·75	1·65	4·50
Cuddapah ...	19	0·51	0·75	0·27	0·50	0·27	0·50	0·30	0·50	2·16	2·75	2·15	5·00	2·74	6·00
Ganjam ...	13	0·39	0·75	0·13	0·25	0·75	1·25	1·51	3·00	1·61	3·50	6·70	7·25	6·24	10·75
Godavari ...	19	0·40	0·75	0·25	0·25	0·48	0·25	0·52	1·00	1·46	2·75	4·53	6·25	6·10	10·75
Kistna	11	1·09	0·75	0·07	0·25	0·36	0·25	0·30	0·50	1·10	2·50	2·71	5·50	4·62	9·50
Kurnool ...	9	0·20	0·75	0·00	0·00	0·04	0·00	0·28	0·50	1·49	3·50	2·98	6·00	4·08	9·00
Madras	1	1·75	2·50	1·65	1·00	0·73	1·00	0·76	1·25	1·12	1·25	3·60	10·00	4·88	15·25
Madura ...	13	1·68	2·00	0·96	2·00	0·50	1·25	1·68	3·00	1·83	2·25	1·19	2·00	0·84	2·00
Malabar ...	15	0·91	1·25	0·48	1·50	0·75	1·00	3·61	6·00	7·19	8·50	31·75	25·00	33·87	28·00
Nellore	18	1·30	1·25	0·70	0·25	0·17	0·25	0·15	0·25	1·05	1·75	1·18	3·00	3·71	5·75
North Arcot ...	9	0·55	0·75	1·54	0·75	0·73	0·50	0·42	1·00	3·72	2·75	1·97	4·50	3·20	6·00
Salem	10	0·16	0·50	0·61	1·00	0·75	0·75	1·21	2·75	4·16	5·00	2·41	4·75	2·82	5·50
South Arcot ...	8	0·43	0·75	2·04	1·50	0·26	0·25	1·19	1·00	2·64	2·25	1·73	3·25	3·20	5·25
South Canara ...	5	1·23	0·75	0·26	0·75	0·21	0·50	1·10	2·50	6·32	7·75	39·98	25·75	47·04	29·25
Tanjore ...	10	1·52	2·50	1·64	2·00	0·24	0·25	2·35	2·25	3·13	2·50	1·86	3·25	2·64	4·75
Tinnevelly ...	11	3·08	3·50	1·76	2·75	1·39	2·50	1·66	3·75	1·41	2·50	0·63	2·00	0·35	0·75
Trichinopoly ...	5	0·83	1·25	1·33	1·75	0·08	0·25	1·49	2·75	3·06	4·25	2·01	2·75	2·11	3·00
Vizagapatam ...	13	0·62	0·75	0·40	0·50	0·37	0·25	1·10	1·50	2·34	4·00	5·13	6·75	5·32	9·00

Average Rainfall in Districts of Madras Presidency—Mean of Four Years, 1870–73—(Continued).

Districts.	Number of Gauge-stations.	August.		September.		October.		November.		December.		Total.	
		Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.
Bellary	17	3·93	7·25	4·78	7·75	6·31	8·75	0·97	2·75	0·30	0·75	23·70	45·50
Chingleput	7	5·21	9·00	5·24	7·00	9·08	10·00	14·81	12·50	2·62	4·00	49·95	61·25
Coimbatore	10	2·43	4·75	2·94	5·75	4·94	8·25	4·35	7·25	0·57	2·00	25·53	47·50
Cuddapah	19	4·71	7·50	4·59	6·50	8·24	9·00	3·37	5·25	0·72	1·50	30·05	45·75
Ganjam	13	7·30	12·25	7·76	12·25	9·42	9·00	1·45	2·25	0·78	1·00	49·03	63·5
Godavari	19	5·06	8·00	8·24	10·25	10·82	10·75	1·95	2·50	0·55	0·75	40·34	54·20
Kistna	11	4·58	9·00	6·68	10·25	8·11	10·00	1·90	2·75	0·39	0·75	31·97	52·00
Kurnool	9	4·68	8·25	6·07	8·50	4·65	6·75	1·06	2·50	0·48	0·75	26·00	44·50
Madras	1	4·88	16·25	6·67	11·25	14·58	15·25	19·09	18·00	4·36	6·50	64·03	99·50
Madura	13	2·67	5·00	1·81	4·00	4·24	8·00	4·63	6·75	1·43	3·25	22·92	41·25
Malabar	15	11·60	18·75	9·49	14·50	8·25	12·25	3·74	6·25	0·81	1·50	112·97	124·50
Nellore	18	3·73	5·75	3·92	5·25	11·02	9·25	9·78	8·00	1·76	2·00	37·46	42·50
North Arcot	9	4·94	8·50	6·22	8·00	8·00	10·25	7·65	8·50	1·39	3·25	40·36	54·75
Salem	10	4·99	8·00	6·62	9·25	7·09	9·50	3·28	5·75	1·44	2·75	35·57	55·50
South Arcot	8	5·59	8·25	5·32	6·25	8·87	10·25	11·79	12·25	3·66	4·25	46·63	55·50
South Canara	5	21·40	22·75	12·44	19·75	9·15	13·75	1·22	3·75	0·26	0·75	140·63	128·00
Tanjore	10	4·91	7·50	3·86	6·59	9·11	11·75	10·87	13·00	5·00	8·00	47·14	64·25
Tinnevelly	11	0·75	2·00	1·28	2·50	2·77	5·00	7·30	11·00	1·84	4·00	24·79	42·25
Trichinopoly	5	4·69	6·25	4·89	6·00	0·04	11·75	6·72	10·25	2·32	4·50	38·01	53·75
Vizagapatam	13	7·01	6·00	7·03	10·00	9·76	9·50	1·93	2·50	1·33	1·00	42·33	56·25

Chief staples.

The chief staples of the Presidency are rice, cholum (a kind of maize), cumboo (a kind of millet), ragi, and varagu amongst food-grains; gingelly amongst oil seeds; and chillies, tobacco, sugar-cane, plantains, and betel leaf amongst garden crops. Cotton, as a special crop, has a cultivation almost equalling that of ragi. The trees most grown for their fruits are cocoanut, areca nut, jack, tamarind, and mango. Rice, as might be expected, is produced in the largest quantities in the alluvial and highly-irrigated districts of Tanjore, Godavari, and Kistna on the East Coast, and in Malabar and Canara on the West Coast, where the rainfall is so abundant as to render irrigation by artificial means almost unnecessary. Cholum is most abundant in the table-land districts of Bellary and Kurnool, while cumboo and ragi are most extensively grown in the other inland, but less elevated, districts, such as Salem and Coimbatore. Cocoanut palms flourish most luxuriantly on the banks of the estuaries and backwaters or salt-water lagoons of the western districts of Malabar and Canara, and areca nut palms in the valleys intersecting the lower slopes of the Western Ghauts.

Linguistic divisions.

Within the Madras Presidency there are six well-defined linguistic boundaries. In the northernmost district of Ganjam is included a portion of the Ooriya-speaking population. The Telugu language is commonly spoken by the people of the Northern Circars, and in a portion of the Nizam's country, Kurnool, Cuddapah, part of North Arcot, Nellore and some parts of Bellary. Tamil is the common language of the districts from a few miles north of Madras to the extreme south of the eastern division of the peninsula. Malayalum is the language of the Native States of Travancore, Cochin, and the Malabar District. Tulu is spoken in a limited portion of the South Canara District; and Canarese in certain portions of the Bellary, Coimbatore, Salem, and South Canara Districts. Besides these six Dravidian languages, the hill tribes of certain districts have dialects of their own, also of a Dravidian type. In the whole Presidency there are about 11,610,000 persons who speak the Telugu language; Tamil, 14,715,000; Canarese, 1,699,000; Malayalum, 2,324,000; Tulu, 29,400; Oorya and Hill languages, 640,000. From time to time colonies of Telugu and Canarese-speaking people have found their way down to the southern or Tamil country. In some cases they have been invited to settle as cultivators in localities where waste lands were available. In others they followed probably in the train of invading armies. In the same way people from the Mahratta country have settled in the south, and in all the large towns there are colonies of silk-weavers from Gujerat, who speak a language of their own. Along the border lines of the prevailing languages two or more languages are indifferently spoken by the people. There is no instance of the Tamil people

pushing their colonies up towards the north. The migrations appear to have been always from north to south. In the large military cantonments of Secunderabad and Bangalore there are Tamil-speaking populations, but these people have settled as camp-followers.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

Military history —1620.

The first attempt at the formation of an English Settlement in the Madras Presidency was in conjunction with the Dutch at Pulicat early in the seventeenth century, or about one hundred years after the establishment of the Mahomedan kingdoms of Bijapore and Golconda. Compelled to desist from this attempt, the English formed a trading settlement at Masulipatam in 1620, and shortly afterwards at Armogum, about forty miles north of Pulicat; and in 1639, after permission had been obtained from the Hindu Rajah of Chandragherry, the first English fortress on the Eastern Coast of India was erected at Madras. In 1691 Fort St. David was built at Tegnapatam, near Cuddalore, on a site purchased from a petty native prince.

—1672.

Until the end of the first half of the following century the English carried on their trading operations tolerably unmolested in the midst of the continual wars between the Mussulman and Mahratta conquerors of the old Southern Hindu powers; the only event really affecting the future career of the settlements being the acquisition by the French of the village of Pondicherry, which they purchased in 1672 from the King of Bijapore shortly before his dynasty was overthrown by Aurungzebe. In 1744, war broke out between the French and English, and Fort St. George fell—only to be restored again, however, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1749. The European war being thus ended, the forces of the two powers found both occupation and profit in the various wars between the native princes, and it usually happened that their sympathies or their interests were enlisted on opposite sides. Nearly the whole of Southern India was then subject to the Nizam of Hyderabad, the country in the neighbourhood of Madras being under the immediate rule of a tributary prince, called the Nabob of the Carnatic, while the Mahrattas still held supreme power in Tanjore and the adjacent country. The English first assisted a claimant to the Mahratta throne of Tanjore, and were rewarded by the cession of the town of Devicottah. The French took up the cause of Chanda Sahib, who in alliance with Mirzapha Jung, opposed Mahomed Ali, Nabob of the Carnatic, and Nizam Nazir Jung. Chanda Sahib being an old enemy of the Tanjore prince, the assist-

ance of the English was again invoked and obtained, but Mirzapha Jung succeeded in securing the throne of the Nizam, and the triumph of the French under Dupleix was complete until Clive appeared upon the scene and changed the whole course of the war by seizing Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, on the 30th August 1751, while Chanda Sahib and the French were besieging Mahomed Ali in Trichinopoly. He himself was besieged in turn, but repulsed all attacks and followed up his success by the victory of Arnee, which virtually placed the Carnatic once more under the ally of the English, although the siege of Trichinopoly was not formally raised until the French detachment, which had retreated to Srirungum, surrendered to Clive and Major Lawrence in June 1752. Chanda Sahib was eventually assassinated by a Mahratta, probably at the instigation of Mahomed Ali.

—1754. A quarrel next broke out between Mahomed Ali and Nunjeraj, the Minister of the Rajah of Mysore. The assistance of the latter had been procured by the Nabob by the promise to cede Trichinopoly if he were victorious, but, when he had got all he wanted, he declined to fulfil his agreement. Nunjeraj then had recourse to force, and, though the English at first hesitated to assist the Nabob under such circumstances, the conduct of Nunjeraj in other matters left them no alternative but to treat him as an enemy. The French supported the Mysoreans, and a succession of engagements took place, chiefly in the immediate vicinity of Trichinopoly, in which the English were almost uniformly successful. The recall of Dupleix on the 14th October 1754 led to a cessation of hostilities, but the English continued to aid the Nabob of the Carnatic in the internal management of his dominions, the Nizam Salabut Jung receiving similar assistance from the French under M. Bussy.

—1757. The theatre of action was then for some time transferred to Bengal, where Clive took command of the English army, but hostilities recommenced in Southern India in 1757 as soon as it was known that war had again broken out in Europe between the French and English. The French took advantage of the English forces being dispersed in various expeditions, and made an unsuccessful attack on Trichinopoly, while another detachment succeeded in gaining possession of Vizagapatam. In 1758 a French fleet appeared off Fort St. David, and the fort fell on the 2nd June. Devicottah was next reduced, and the French commander, Count de Lally, made a triumphal entry into Pondicherry; but here his success ended for the time, and an expedition against Tanjore resulted in complete failure. In December, however, he besieged Madras itself, and the siege was not raised until two months afterwards, when an English fleet appeared in the roads. In the meantime the English arms under Colonel Forde were progressing satisfactorily further north, where Clive had sent a detachment to

operate in a tract called the Northern Circars, which had been ceded by the Nizam to the French, and their successes culminated in the fall of Masulipatam on the 7th April, by which the French influence with the Nizam was destroyed, and a tract of territory around Masulipatam extending eighty miles along the coast and twenty miles inland, was ceded by him to the English. The operations in the south were of a minor nature until 22nd January 1760, when the French under Lally were completely defeated at Wandewash, near Arcot, by Colonel Coote who had arrived with reinforcements from England. This was followed by the capture within a fortnight of Gingee and Arcot. Minor forts fell in rapid succession, and by May the English were in a position to lay siege to Pondicherry. Lally then had recourse to the services of Hyder Ali, an adventurer who subsequently usurped supreme power in Mysore, but at that time merely held high military command under the Rajah. An English detachment sent to meet the Mysoreans was totally defeated, and the situation of the English might have become critical had not home troubles recalled the Mysore troops to their own country. Deprived of their aid, the French cause soon became hopeless, and, on the 16th January 1761, Pondicherry surrendered. With this event the French power in the Carnatic may be said to have ended; and, so far as the English were concerned, there were no more military operations in Southern India until 1766 beyond granting such little aid as was, from time to time, necessary to enable the Nabob of the Carnatic to keep down his turbulent vassals. Negotiations were carried on with the Nizam of Hyderabad for the cession of the Northern Circars, but with no very satisfactory results; and in 1765 sunnuds transferring these tracts to the Company were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, whose paramount authority was recognized by the Nizam. The Madras authorities, however, hesitated to avail themselves of the powers thus assigned to them except with the consent of the Nizam; and in 1766, although sending a body of troops to secure their possession, they entered into a treaty with Nizam Ali, agreeing to pay tribute for the Circars and to defend the Nizam against his enemies. In the meantime the Mysore adventurer, Hyder Ali, had succeeded, not only in obtaining supreme power in that province, but in extending his dominion on all sides, and the English were very soon called on, under the treaty, to assist the Nizam and the Mahrattas in checking the advance of Hyder in the direction of their territories. No sooner, however, had operations commenced than Hyder Ali, by judicious expenditure of treasure, not only bought off the Mahrattas, but actually induced the Nizam to desert his allies and join him in a descent upon the Carnatic. Colonel Smith, who commanded the English troops, finding himself thus opposed to a force infinitely larger than his own, commenced a retreat, followed by the allies who

overtook him at Changamma. The English repulsed the attack thus made, but were compelled to continue their retreat to Trinomallee. On being attacked at that place the victory of the English was decisive, the troops of Hyder and of the Nizam retreating in the utmost confusion, while bands of marauding horse, who had been plundering the country up to the very gate of Madras under the command of Hyder's son Tippoo, a boy of seventeen, considered their situation to be no longer secure, and drew off to rejoin the rest of the army. Colonel Smith, however, was too weak to follow up his victory, and withdrew his troops into cantonment for the rains, which were now at hand. Hyder at once took advantage of this inaction to reduce a few unimportant fortresses, but his movements were checked at the hill fort of Amboor, where Captain Calvert, with a garrison of five hundred sepoys and fifteen Europeans defied the utmost efforts of Hyder's armies for nearly a month, when he was relieved by Colonel Smith on the 7th December 1767. Hyder then drew off, and after a few skirmishes he retired above the ghauts, having learned that an expedition from Bombay had captured his fleet in the harbours of Canara and commenced hostile operations in his territories on the Western Coast. Risking an invasion from the east, Hyder hurried over to meet what to him seemed the more imminent danger, and appeared suddenly before Mangalore in such force as to compel the re-embarkation of the expedition. In the meantime, though very imperfectly informed of Hyder's actual movements, the Madras Government resolved to commence offensive operations, and one body of troops under Colonel Wood proceeded to reduce the fortresses under the south-eastern slopes of the ghauts, while another entered Mysore proper under Colonel Smith. The movements of both detachments were at first completely successful, but just as they had united in August 1768, with the view of attacking Bangalore, Hyder returned from the Western Coast and made an attack on the camp of a Mahratta Contingent, which, though unsuccessful, was sufficient to show that there was no chance of reducing Bangalore unless a decisive victory could be first obtained over Hyder in the field. Various marches and counter-marches were undertaken with this object, but in vain, and after reconquering a number of the fortified places on the table-land, Hyder descended into the lowland by passes unknown to the English, and speedily retook the fortresses in Coimbatore, the Baramahal, and Salem, which in almost all cases had been left most inadequately supplied with troops. He did not, however, care to risk an engagement in the field with Colonel Smith, and a treaty was concluded on the 4th April 1769, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests with the exception of Caroor, which was ceded to Hyder on the ground of its being an ancient dependency of Mysore.

From the date of this treaty until the year 1780 the only military —1780.
operations in the south of India, beyond the usual work of assisting the Nabob of the Carnatic in keeping peace in his own dominions and in his quarrels with the Tanjore Rajah, were the capture of Pondicherry from the French in 1779, and the reduction of the French Settlement of Mahé on the Western Coast in 1779. The war which broke out again with Hyder in 1780 was attributable to the Nabob of the Carnatic failing to furnish the necessary supplies to enable the English to fulfil the stipulations of the treaty of 1769. Enraged at this apparent treachery and bad faith, Hyder succeeded in forming an alliance with the Nizam and the Mahrattas, and descended on the plains of the Carnatic in July 1780, burning crops and devastating villages, so that a cordon of blackened desert was formed around Madras, commencing at the lake of Pulicat, extending some fifty miles inland, and terminating a little to the north of Pondicherry. The English Commander-in-Chief, Sir Hector Munro, proceeded to Conjeveram, an open town 40 miles from Madras, and directed Colonel Baillie to join him there with troops from the north. Hyder endeavoured to prevent the junction, and Sir Hector, seeing that Colonel Baillie was in danger, sent a detachment under Colonel Fletcher to his aid, which successfully eluded the enemy, and joined Colonel Baillie on the 9th September, only to be included, however, in the general massacre which took place when Colonel Baillie's force was attacked by overwhelming numbers on the following day. Sir Hector Munro considered Conjeveram no longer tenable when he heard the news of this disaster, and commenced a retreat to Madras, which he reached on the 14th September, leaving the field open to Hyder. On receipt of the intelligence at Calcutta, the then Governor-General Warren Hastings suspended the Governor of Madras, and despatched Sir Eyre Coote with reinforcements. The latter arrived on the 1st November 1780, but was unable to take the field until the 17th January 1781. On the 19th he relieved Chingleput, and on the 21st retook Carangooly, which had the effect of raising the siege of Wandewash, which had been gloriously defended by Lieutenant Flint. Hearing of the arrival of a French fleet off Pondicherry he proceeded to that place, but, finding that the fleet had brought no land forces, he turned his attention to the protection of Cuddalore. Hyder had followed him down the coast, but moved off when the English general offered him battle, probably considering it more politic to endeavour to weaken the force by cutting off supplies, from the want of which the English army had already experienced considerable difficulty. Thus hampered, the troops remained almost inactive until the 18th June, when an ineffectual attempt was made to capture Chellumbrum. The news of this failure apparently emboldened Hyder to make a decisive attempt to

annihilate the English army, and he accordingly advanced and took up a position close to Sir Eyre Coote's camp at Porto Novo, a small town on the coast about 14 miles south of Cuddalore. The battle commenced early on the morning of the 1st July 1781, an English fleet lying close in shore with the view of enabling the embarkation of the remnant of the army in the, by no means impossible, contingency of its being defeated in an encounter with an enemy at the very least eight times its numerical superior. The battle was long and severe, but by 4 P.M. the enemy were in precipitate retreat. The want of proper equipment rendered Sir Eyre Coote unable to take full advantage of the complete victory which he had gained, but he succeeded in again relieving Wandewash on the 18th July, after which he proceeded northwards and joined a detachment from Bengal at Pulicat, having eluded the force sent to intercept him by adopting a line of march hitherto supposed impassable for troops. Thus reinforced he marched against the fortress of Tripassore and procured its surrender on the 22nd August, just before Hyder's relieving army appeared on the field. A general action took place on the 27th, but with no very decisive result, though the English kept possession of the field. A month later, on the 27th of September, the English commander surprised the enemy near Sholinghur and gained such a victory as put him in a position to throw provisions into Vellore, which had been defended from the commencement of the war against the finest troops and strongest batteries which Hyder's resources could furnish. In November the English army retired for the monsoon to Madras, where it remained until the following January, when it had once more to advance to the relief of Vellore. Hyder then turned his attention to Cuddalore, and succeeded in reducing it with the assistance of a French Contingent which had landed at Porto Novo. Permacoil followed, but Sir Eyre Coote once more arrived in time to save Wandewash. In the meantime war had broken out with the Dutch as well as with the French, and the Dutch Settlements of Sadras, Pulicat, and Negapatam had been captured. A portion of the force employed for the reduction of the latter place was subsequently detached under Colonel Brathwaite to operate in Tanjore. Deceived by false spies, the little force was suddenly surrounded by superior numbers under Hyder's son, Tippoo, and only a small remnant escaped with their lives. To counterbalance this, a rebellion had broken out in Malabar, and a small force of English sent to their aid gained a considerable victory at Tellicherry, which necessitated the immediate despatch of Tippoo to the Western Coast, and Hyder Ali, feeling himself overmatched by Sir Eyre Coote, determined to quit the Coromandel Coast. The English commander then returned with his army to Madras, where he bid them a final farewell, and General Stuart

assumed the command in his place. The English force on the Western Coast seemed hardly strong enough successfully to oppose that brought against it, but the news of the death of Hyder at Chittoor on the 7th December 1782 led to Tippoo's speedy return to the head-quarters of the principal army, thereby leaving the field open to the English, who were shortly afterwards reinforced by a considerable number of troops from Bombay under General Matthews. Several places on the coast fell in rapid succession, and eventually the English penetrated to Bednore above the ghauts. Here, however, their success ended, Tippoo returning and compelling the surrender of the place on the 3rd May, after which he marched to the siege of Mangalore, where a small fort was in the occupation of Colonel Campbell. The garrison was insignificant and the material defences of the place contemptible, but Tippoo was unable to take it by assault and his large army remained for many months practically inactive, while his French allies under M. Bussy were being besieged in Cuddalore. On the receipt of the news of the conclusion of peace between France and England, an armistice was agreed upon under which Tippoo was bound to provision the garrison of Mangalore. With but little more than a pretence of observing the letter of the convention, he deliberately broke the spirit by supplying provisions which were utterly unfit for consumption, and the garrison, completely broken down by famine and sickness, were obliged to capitulate on the 30th January 1784, the health of the commander being so undermined that he expired on the 23rd March following. After much evasion and delay, peace was ultimately concluded on the 10th March on the basis of mutual restoration of conquests. During this war many of the English prisoners, including General Matthews, were put to death by Tippoo by poison or still more inhuman means.

After the conclusion of peace with the English, Tippoo seized about —1790.
thirty thousand of the Christians of Canara, forcibly converted them to Islam, and deported them to the country above the ghauts. Subsequently, the many rebellions of the Nairs of Malabar on account of a somewhat similar exercise of fanatical zeal in that portion of his territory led to expeditions for the suppression of the several risings; and many of the Nairs having taken refuge in Travancore, Tippoo resolved to invade that country in their pursuit, notwithstanding an intimation that such a proceeding would involve him in another war with the English. His first attempt to enter Travancore ended in failure. A second was more successful, and the country was overrun in the usual cruel manner; but, on his return to Coimbatore, he found an English army in the field at Trichinopoly under the command of General Medows, the Governor of Madras, who had also entered into alliances with the Mahrattas and the Nizam. Tippoo at first

withdrew to Seringapatam, which he had established as the capital of his dominions, and the English met with little opposition in the reduction of the various forts along the south-eastern slopes of the ghauts until the 7th September, when their army was attacked by a force commanded by Tippoo in person, which had descended by the Gazalhatti pass. The attack was repulsed, but all General Medows' efforts to bring on a general action were evaded by Tippoo, and nothing but indecisive skirmishes took place, until the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, took the field in person, and, assuming the command on the 29th January 1791, at once commenced preparations for a march upon Bangalore, concentrating his army at Vellore. Tippoo hastened to intercept his advance, which he expected would be made by the passes near Amboor, but the demonstration in that direction was a mere feint, and the table-land was reached by the more northerly pass of Moogly without a shot fired. The pettah or town of Bangalore fell early in March, and on the night of the 20th the fort was taken by assault after a severe contest of little over an hour. While these operations were going on in Mysore, Colonel Hartly from the Madras side had defeated the Sultan's troops near Calicut; and General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, had landed at Tellicherry with a considerable force, and reduced Cannanore without encountering much opposition. The name of Tippoo was so hated throughout the province that but little difficulty was met with in the operations in that neighbourhood, and within a very short time the whole of Malabar was in the occupation of the English. Operations on a smaller scale were conducted in the north in concert with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, the latter having also despatched a body of about ten thousand horse to join Lord Cornwallis' army.

—1792. On the 4th of May the English army left Bangalore to march against Seringapatam; but the route was so difficult, the means of transport so limited, and the devastation of the country by Tippoo so thoroughly carried out, that, notwithstanding a successful engagement at Arikera, only nine miles from Seringapatam, Lord Cornwallis was compelled to abandon his plan of operations for the time and retire to the vicinity of Bangalore, where he occupied himself for some time in reducing a number of hill forts. The Nizam's troops and the Mahrattas having worked their way up from the north and reinforced his army with both men and supplies, Lord Cornwallis again appeared before the walls of Seringapatam on the 5th February 1792. On the night of the 6th, the outlying encampment and redoubts were carried and the city closely invested on two sides. Preparations were made for the vigorous conduct of the siege, and on the 16th the army was joined by that of General Abercrombie from Malabar. A few days previously Tippoo had made overtures for peace, but the negotiations

did not lead to a cessation of preparations for the siege, and it was evident that the fall of Seringapatam was close at hand when, on the 24th February, orders were issued for the discontinuance of all hostilities, peace having been agreed upon on the basis of a cession to the allies of one-half of the dominions of which Tippoo was in possession before the war, the payment of three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees, and the restitution of all prisoners including those retained from the time of Hyder. Under this treaty the English came into possession of the Baramahal, Dindigul, Malabar, and Coorg, the latter being restored to the Rajah, who had rendered essential aid to the English in the course of the war.

Though thus severely disabled, Tippoo was not rendered completely —1799.
powerless. He lost no time in commencing a series of intrigues with the view of winning over those who had been the allies of the English, and even despatched an embassy to Paris to try and obtain the assistance of the French. His overtures being rejected by Louis XVI., he renewed them after the revolution had broken out, and a paltry contingent of ninety-nine men from the Mauritius landed at Mangalore in 1798. The aid thus received was contemptible, but the object of applying for it was manifest, and the then Governor-General, Lord Mornington, resolved to act at once instead of waiting till Tippoo had matured his plans. Instructions were despatched for the immediate adoption of such measures as were necessary to place the Madras army on a satisfactory footing, and an alliance was entered into with the Nizam. The object of the Governor-General was to obtain possession of the maritime territory still under Tippoo, and thus preclude him from communication with the French; and, before commencing the war, an opportunity was afforded him of averting it by timely concession, but all efforts at negotiation were futile, and offensive operations were determined on. The army of the Carnatic was placed under the command of General Harris, while another force from Malabar under General Stuart ascended into Coorg early in March 1799. Tippoo directed his first efforts against this latter army, but was beaten at Sedasseer near Periapatam, and in the meantime General Harris and the Nizam's troops crossed the Mysore frontier. Tippoo turned to meet them, and was defeated with severe loss in a general action at Malvelly on the 27th March. He then retired to Seringapatam, and the allies advanced to the siege, which lasted for a month before a practicable breach was made. The assault commenced at one o'clock on the 4th May, and before evening Tippoo was dead, and the whole town in the possession of the English. The dynasty of Hyder and Tippoo having practically come to an end with the fall of the latter, the settlement of the country was effected by the restoration of Mysore proper to the representative of the ancient royal family whose rights

had been usurped by Hyder. The greater part of the remainder was then divided between the English and the Nizam, the districts of Canara, Coimbatore, and Wynad falling to the share of the former. A portion was also reserved for the Peishwa, with the view of its forming a basis for a new treaty with the Mahratta Empire. Arrangements were at the same time made by which Mysore could never again become a great military power, and, to provide against the most remote contingencies, it was stipulated that the heads of all the passes on the table-land should remain for ever in the hands of the British. The military history of the Madras Presidency may be said to cease with the treaty of 1799, all subsequent addition of territory, with one exception, having been peacefully acquired. Before noting these, a brief recapitulation will be made of the territorial acquisitions already alluded to.

Acquisition of territory down to 1799.

As stated in the opening paragraph, a trading settlement was established at Masulipatam in 1620, and in 1639 and in 1691 Forts St. George and St. David were built at Madras and Tegnapatam, respectively, by the permission of the ruling Hindu princes. The fort of Tellicherry, in Malabar, was similarly established in 1708. The first footing in Tanjore was gained by the cession of Devicottah in 1749, as a reward for assistance rendered to a successful claimant to the throne. The Nizams Mirzapha Jung and Salabut Jung had ceded Masulipatam and portions of the Northern Circars to the French ; but, on the capture of Masulipatam by the English in 1757, the influence of the French was broken, and the town of Masulipatam and a considerable tract of the surrounding territory was made over to the English. In 1765 sunnuds ceding the whole of the Northern Circars were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, but the Madras Government thought it more politic to obtain the consent of the Nizam also, and in 1766 the five Circars of Ellore, Chicacole, Rajahmundry, Moostafarnugger, and Moortizanugger or Guntoor were ceded by treaty on the English agreeing to pay an annual subsidy of nine lakhs, or to furnish military assistance when required. A life-interest in the Circar of Guntoor was retained on behalf of the Nizam's brother Bazalut Jung, and it did not come into the possession of the English until 1768, six years after the death of Bazalut Jung. The Dutch settlements of Pulicat, Sadras, and Negapatam were annexed in 1781. The earlier wars with Hyder and Tippoo were concluded with a peace on the basis of mutual restitution of territory, but by the treaty of 1792 the districts of Malabar and Salem and the Dindigul division of Madura were acquired by the English, and on the partition of Tippoo's territory in 1799 the districts of Canara and Coimbatore fell to the share of the British Government.

Subsequent history.

During the wars of the eighteenth century the English more than once interfered in the disputes between the Rajah of Tanjore and the Nabob of the Carnatic, and in 1776 a treaty was concluded by which Nagore and 277 villages were ceded to the Company. The internal affairs of the kingdom continued to go on from bad to worse, and, after a turbulent period of disputed succession, the rightful claimant to the throne, on being put into power in 1799, executed a treaty resigning the administration of the kingdom into the hands of the British, on the understanding that he would receive a provision of one lakh of pagodas and one-fifth of the net revenues. The titular dignity became extinct in 1855 through failure of heirs. In 1800 a new treaty was entered into with the Nizam, by which a considerable increase was made in the British Subsidiary Force, on account of which the Nizam ceded all the territories he had acquired by the Mysore treaties of 1792 and 1799, together with the taluk of Adoni and all other taluks situated to the south of the rivers Toombuddra and Kistna. These are known by the name of the Ceded Districts, and comprise the provinces of Bellary and Cuddapah. The English having in all the earlier wars of the peninsula supported the cause of Mahomed Ali, Nabob of the Carnatic, and having in fact secured him both the original possession of his kingdom and the power of retaining it, the revenues of the Carnatic were looked to for the defrayal of the expenses of the wars, and with this view the present district of Chingleput, then known as "the Jaghire," was made over to the Company in 1763. This was rented to the Nabob for some time, but in 1780 the British Government took the management into their own hands. As new wars arose fresh agreements were made, and a series of treaties were executed culminating in that of 1792, three years before the death of Mahomed Ali, and the accession of Omdut-ool-Oomrah, by which the Nabob agreed to pay a large subsidy, and, in order to secure punctual payment, the English were authorized to collect tribute direct from a large number of the poligars or local chiefs. In the event of the balance not being paid, the English were further authorized to assume the management of certain specified districts. In accordance with this treaty, tribute was collected throughout a great part of the Tinnevelly and Madura Districts, and in 1795 the Company assumed the entire management of the Ramnad division of the present district of Madura. On the fall of Seringapatam in 1799 it was discovered that both Mahomed Ali and Omdut-ool-Oomrah had been carrying on a treasonable correspondence with Mysore, and the treaty of 1792 having thus been infringed, the British Government resolved to assume the entire management of the Carnatic, and proposed a treaty for the purpose. Omdut-ool-Oomrah having died before arrangements were concluded,

and his reputed son Ali Hoossain having rejected the terms offered him, another grandson of Mahomed Ali, named Azeem-ood-Dowlah, was declared his successor, and an arrangement was entered into on the 31st July 1801, by which he resigned the government of the country into the hands of the British, retaining the titular dignity and receiving a liberal stipend. The effect of this treaty was to bring under British rule the whole of the country from the Northern Circars to Cape Comorin, with the exception of the French Settlements of Pondicherry and Karikal and the Danish settlement of Tranquebar. The titular dignity of Nabob of the Carnatic was continued until 1855, when there was a failure of direct heirs. The present representative of the family bears the title of Prince of Arcot, and has the position of the first native nobleman of Madras. In 1838 internal mismanagement and suspicion of treasonable intrigue on the part of the Nabob of Kurnool led to the occupation of his territory by an armed force and to its subsequent annexation. Tranquebar was ceded by the Danes in 1845, since which time there has been no accession of territory to the Madras Presidency. The district of North Canara was transferred to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

CIVIL DIVISIONS OF THE BRITISH TERRITORY.

Districts grouped.

The Madras Presidency, according to existing boundary divisions, is made up of twenty-one districts, grouped as below:—

*Technical names of groups of Districts.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Position.
Northern	1. Ganjam	8,313	To the north and east along the sea coast on the Bay of Bengal.
	2. Vizagapatam	18,344	
	3. Godavari	7,109	
	4. Kistna	8,036	
East Central ...	5. Nellore	8,462	
	6. Madras	27	
	7. Chingleput	2,753	
	8. South Arcot	4,873	
Ceded Districts ...	9. North Arcot	7,139	In the centre of the peninsula and mostly south and east of Mysore.
	10. Kurnool†	7,358	
	11. Bellary	11,007	
	12. Cuddapah	8,367	
West Central ...	13. Salem	7,483	
	14. Coimbatore	7,432	
	15. Nilgiris	749	
Southern	16. Tanjore	3,654‡	To the south, forming the south-eastern boundary of the peninsula.
	17. Trichinopoly	3,515	
	18. Madura	9,502	
	19. Tinnevelly	5,176	
West Coast	20. South Canara	3,902	On the Western Coast.
	21. Malabar	6,002	

* Districts with a sea board are called "Maritime Districts."

† Kurnool is not strictly speaking one of the historical "Ceded Districts."

‡ Exclusive of Puducottah territory, the area of which is 1,380 square miles.

The four districts at the head of the list are known as the "Northern Circars." Prior to 1859-60 these circars consisted of five districts, but in that year the three districts of Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, and Guntoor were divided to form the present Godavari and Kistna Districts. The northern districts were formerly under the Nizam's Government, and in that time the divisions were as follows:—Guntoor, Condapilly, Ellore, Rajahmundry, and Chicacole. They came finally into British possession in the year 1823, by the payment to the Nizam's Government of Rupees 11,66,666 in lieu of an annual tribute. When these districts fell into the hands of the East India Company they consisted chiefly of large estates held by renters or zemindars; of lands called "Hávelly," which were the old demesnes, or private estates, of former rulers; and of tracts near the principal towns which had been resumed by the Mahomedan Governors of the districts, and appropriated for the support of their numerous bands of soldiers and public establishments. For some years prior to 1855-56 these Northern Circars were under the charge of a separate Commissioner, but each district had then also its own revenue and judicial establishments. The appointment of Commissioner of the Northern Circars was abolished in June 1856. Northern Circars.

The part of the Presidency usually known as the Carnatic appears to have been originally formed of three divisions, namely, Northern, extending from the river Pennar to the river Gundegama, and consisting of a portion of the Nellore District; Central, extending from the Coleroon to the Pennar River, and containing a portion of Trichinopoly, Chingleput, North Arcot, South Arcot, Madras, and Nellore Districts; and Southern, consisting of a portion of the Trichinopoly and the whole of Tanjore, Tinnevelly, and Madura Districts. These districts came into the possession of the British between the years 1799 and 1801. Carnatic.

In the year 1859-60 the two districts of Mádras Town and Chingleput were amalgamated into a single district, the collection of Sea Customs revenue being separately provided for. In the year 1870 the Chingleput District was again divided as before, leaving the administration of the Madras Town District in the hands of the Sea Customs Collector. The Chingleput District was obtained from the Nabob of Arcot in 1763 in return for services rendered to him and his father by the Company. The grant was confirmed by the Great Moghul in 1765, and for a long time the district was known as the "Jaghire" of the East India Company. The site of the town of Madras was obtained in the year 1640, by a grant from the descendants of the Vijianaggur rulers, subsequently confirmed by the Moghul Government. Chingleput and Madras.

The districts of Bellary and Cuddapah were ceded to the English by the Nizam in the year 1800 for the maintenance, in perpetuity, of a Ceded Districts.

body of troops known as the Hyderabad Subsidiary Force, and as payment for troops furnished during the Mysore wars. The territories so made over are still known as the Ceded Districts.

Kurnool.

In 1800 the rights of sovereignty exercised by the Nizam over the Kurnool country as Soubadar of the Deccan became vested in the East India Company. The Nizam, in the treaty of partition, gave over to the British all his possessions south of the Toombuddra and Kistna rivers below their junction. At this time the ruler of the Kurnool country paid a yearly tribute of one lakh of rupees to the Nizam. In 1839 the Kurnool District, through the rebellion of the then ruler of the country, was placed under British administration.

West centre Districts. Salem and Coimbatore.

The districts of Salem and Coimbatore came into British possession, the former in 1792 by the treaty of Seringapatam, and the latter in 1799 after the final defeat of Tippoo and the partition of his territory between the British, the Nizam, and the legitimate successor to the Mysore Government, the late Maharajah of Mysore.

Nilgiris.

The Nilgiri Hills, formerly a taluk of the Coimbatore District, was constituted a separate district under Act I of 1868.

West Coast Districts. Canara and Malabar.

The two districts of Malabar and Canara, on the western side of the ghauts, fell into the possession of the British in 1792 and 1799 respectively. Canara was in 1859 divided into North and South Canara for administrative purposes, and in 1860 North Canara, with a population of 378,825, was transferred, for convenience of administration, from the Madras to the Bombay Presidency. The taluk of Kundapur, which formerly belonged to North Canara, is now attached to South Canara.

GENERAL FORM OF ADMINISTRATION.

Government of the Presidency.

The Administration of the Madras Presidency is vested in a Governor, with a Council of three Members, one of whom is the Commander-in-Chief for the time being, and the others Members of the Covenanted Civil Service. The Commander-in-Chief is Second in Council, but the Senior Civilian Member presides in the absence of the Governor. The appointment of the Ordinary Members of Council is made by the Queen in Council. Additional Members are added to the number for purposes of legislation only by the Governor; the particulars will be seen under Section III. The cabinet system of administration, under which each member of the Executive Council deals with separate subjects and refers special cases only to the whole Council, is carried out

in a certain degree. It does not prevail however to the same extent as in the Supreme Council, still less to the same extent as in a European cabinet. In the appendix will be found a list of the Governors of Fort St. George from the earliest times down to the present day.

Secretariat Departments.

The different Secretariat Departments of the Government Office are given in a list at foot. Attached to the Chief Secretary, Revenue Secretary, Public Works Secretary, and Joint Secretary for Irrigation, are four Under Secretaries. An Assistant Secretary is also attached to the Judicial and Legislative Departments :—

Financial Department	Under the Chief Secretary to Government.
Judicial do.	
Public do.	
Educational do.	
Political do.	
Ecclesiastical do.	
Marine do.	
Legislative do.	
Petition do.	
Revenue do.	Under the Revenue Secretary to Government.
Pension do.	
Public Works do.	Under the Public Works Secretary to Government and the Joint Secretary to Government for Irrigation.
Railways	Under the Public Works Secretary to Government.
Military Department	Under the Military Secretary to Government.

Branches of the administration.

The names of the different subjects into which the practical administration divides itself can best be seen from the table of contents prefixed to this volume. The classification there shown is the classification of subjects adopted for the purposes of the yearly Administration Report. Some of the subjects, as Jails, Educational, &c., form so-called executive "departments;" where this is so, it is necessary to remark that such departments are not co-incident with the Secretariat departments of the Government Office. The principal executive and other officers who are in direct communication with the Government, are shown in the list given below. The headings show the Secretariat departments of the Government Office in which for the most part their communications are received :—

JUDICIAL.

The Judges of the High Court.
District and Sessions Judges.
District Magistrates.
Agents to the Governor of Fort St. George in Vizagapatam and Ganjam
Inspector-General of Police.
Inspector-General of Jails.
Magistrates of the Town Police Court.
Magistrates of the Egmore Police Court

Judges of the Madras Court of Small Causes.
Advocate-General.
Government Solicitor.
Government Pleader.
Administrator-General.
Coroner of Madras.
Inspector-General of Registration.
Sheriff of Madras.

PUBLIC.

Collectors of Districts.
Commissioner, Nilgiris.
Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department.
Sanitary Commissioner.
Committee for the Examination of Assistants.
Private Secretary to His Excellency the Governor.
Government Astronomer.
Superintendent, Government Central Museum.
Chemical Examiner.
Supervisor of the Government Press.
Protector of Emigrants.
Translators to Government.
Examiner of Medical Accounts.
Committee for the management, Government Work-house, Madras.

POLITICAL.

Resident in Travancore and Cochin.
Government Agent at Chepauk.
Government Agent at Tanjore.
Political Agent at Pudukota.
Collector in charge of the Special Agent's Department at Cuddalore.
Officer in charge of the Stipend Pay Office at Vellore.
British Consular Agents at Pondicherry and Karikal.
Receiver of Carnatic Property.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

The Right Reverend the Bishop of Madras.
Venerable the Archdeacon of Madras.
Senior Chaplain of the Church of Scotland.
Marriage Registrar for the Town of Madras.

MARINE.

Master Attendant, Madras.

FINANCIAL.

Trustees of the Civil Fund.
Accountant-General.
Commissioner of Paper Currency.
Presidents of Municipalities.
Presidents of Local Fund Boards.
Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery.
Postmaster-General.

EDUCATIONAL.

Director of Public Instruction.
Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations.

Registrar, Madras University.
Superintendent of School of Arts.
Committee for the management, Lawrence Asylum, Nilgiris.

REVENUE.

Secretary to the Board of Revenue.
Conservator of Forests.
Director of Revenue Settlement.
Superintendent of Revenue Survey.
Commissioner of Salt Revenue.
Superintendent of Government Farms.

PUBLIC WORKS.

Chief Engineer, Public Works Department.
Chief Engineer for Irrigation.
Consulting Engineer for Railways.
Examiner of Railway Accounts.
Examiner of Public Works Accounts.

MILITARY.

Adjutant-General.
Quartermaster-General.
Judge Advocate-General.
Inspector-General of Ordnance.
Commissary-General.
Controller of Military Accounts.
Superintendent and Agent of Army Clothing.
Superintendent of Family Payments and Pensions.
Remount Agent.
Surgeon-General, British Medical Service.
Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department.

Pay, precedence, and salutes, for certain officers.

In the appendix will be found statements showing the prescribed scale of allowances for the superior civil officers for this Presidency, the warrant of precedence now in force for all officers whose rank is graded as far as the warrant affects this Presidency, and the list of salutes due to European functionaries and to Native princes and chiefs throughout India.

Covenanted Civil Service.

The normal strength of the Covenanted Civil Service in Madras, present and absent on leave, is usually taken to be about 155. The appointments in this Presidency reserved by law for Covenanted Civilians are the following:—2 Members of Council, 2 Judges of the High Court, 21 Judges, 3 Members of the Board of Revenue, 2 Secretaries to Government, 19 Collectors, 2 Secretaries to the Board of Revenue, 1 Collector of Customs and of Madras, 17 Sub-Collectors and Principal Assistants, 2 Under Secretaries to Government, 19 Head Assistants and Senior Assistants, 1 Special Assistant. In speaking of appointments being reserved by law for covenanted officers, it must be mentioned that under Act of Parliament of 1870 the Government of India has power, under certain rules hereafter to be promulgated, to appoint natives of India direct to the service

in supersession of any such law. The following appointments are held by Covenanted Civilians by usage though not by law:— 1 Resident at Travancore, 1 Registrar of the High Court, 1 Commissioner of the Nilgiris, 1 Director of Revenue Settlement, and 1 Deputy Director of Revenue Settlement. A certain number of the recent mofussil Small Cause Court Judgeships were usually held by Covenanted Civilians, but their revival is not contemplated. The position occupied by a Junior Civilian as an Assistant, and until he acts in one of the posts detailed above, is not reckoned as an appointment. There are altogether rather less than 100 appointments ordinarily available to the service, and the service is kept at such a strength that, allowing for absentees, a Junior Civilian will get his first acting appointment in the lowest grade at about the close of his fourth year after arrival in the country. The ordinary annual recruitment calculated so as to ensure these results is about 7, giving an average of 28 Junior Civilians who will be at any one time not yet provided with an appointment. Recruitment in the Civil Service has not always been regular; prior to 1861 there was a large under-recruitment followed in the years 1862, 1863, and 1864 by a correspondingly large over-recruitment. A second under-recruitment followed the year 1869. These measures have produced great inequality in the promotion of existing members of the service, and its present condition may be said to be an entirely abnormal one. The Covenanted Civil Service is so called because each member of the service, before leaving England, enters into a covenant with the Secretary of State, wherein his privileges are recited, and in which he binds himself to certain conditions. The Covenanted Service are concluded as to leave by the Imperial Civil Leave Code. Similarly for acting allowances by the Imperial Acting Allowance Code. For pension they have special rules attached to the Imperial Civil Pension Code. As regards pensions, the Covenanted branch of the service has this peculiarity, that contributions towards the pension at the rate of 4 per cent. on allowances are deducted monthly by Government from the pay of each member. Figures are not available since 1874, but down to that date average contributors paid for £381 out of the £1,000 nominally given as pension by Government. The Covenanted service has also a Provident Fund for widows, orphans, and sick members; this is managed by seven Trustees and a Secretary, but the enjoyment of certain privileges at the hands of Government gives the Fund a quasi-public character.

Staff Corps.

The Staff Corps, which provides officers for military duties, for duty in the civil branches of the army, and for purely civil duties, numbers in this Presidency about 559 officers; of these about 149 are employed in civil duties, that is to say, in the Political, Public Works,

Police, Survey, and Forest Departments, and 410, including unemployed officers, are in Military employment. The Staff Corps are for the most part under separate Military rules as regards leave and pension. The following table showing the statistics of a recent date gives further particulars as to numbers :—

Major Generals.	Colonels with Colonel's allowances.	Brevet Colonel and Lieutenant Colonels.		Majors.		Captains.		Lieutenants.	
		Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.
8 unemployed.	33 2 in Military employ; rest unemployed.	160	40	104	60	74	42	27	7
Total 8	Total 33	Total 204		Total 164		Total 116		Total 34	

The uncovenanted service proper comprises every person in the employ of Government other than a covenanted civilian or an officer of the army who is in receipt of 10 rupees a month and upwards. An Act of Parliament of 1793, in extending the East India Company's charter for another period of twenty years, provided among other things that no office, place, or appointment in the "civil line" of the Company's Indian service should be filled up except by the appointment of a "civil servant," that is to say a member of what is now the covenanted agency. The uncovenanted service had thus no recognized existence at the end of the last century, and matters remained on this footing until the passing by Parliament of the Civil Service Act of 1861. The Civil Service Act provides that with the exception of certain reserved appointments there detailed as belonging to the Covenanted Civil Service, all offices shall be open; thus giving legal recognition to the uncovenanted branch of the service. In 1859 a considerable improvement was made in the status of the uncovenanted service by the creation of the class of Deputy Collectors. About that time also the appointments of Madras Town Magistrates and Judges of the Small Cause Courts were thrown open to natives of India. Quite recently the four assistants to the Chief Secretary, the Revenue Secretary, the Military Secretary, and the Public Works Secretary, were ordered to be classed as gazetted appointments. Considerable misconception exists in some quarters as to the extent to which natives of this country take part in the public administration. The arrangements at the census of 1871 were unfortunately unsatisfactory as regards the classification of employments, and the results are not to be trusted. By collating the budget lists of establishments however, it appears that there cannot be less than 16,000 members

Uncovenanted civil service.

of the uncovenanted service proper; and from general statistics it is not difficult to conclude that the number of persons in the service of Government below that grade must amount to over 80,000. With a very few exceptions, the whole of this body of men are natives of the country. The principal administrative grades of the Revenue and Judicial branches of the uncovenanted service are those of Deputy Collector, Tahsildar, Deputy Tahsildar, Subordinate Judge and District Munsif. There are sixty-eight Deputy Collectors at present in the Presidency at salaries ranging from rupees 240 to rupees 600, a hundred and fifty-six Tahsildars with salaries ranging from rupees 150 to rupees 250, a hundred and seventy-eight Deputy Tahsildars with salaries ranging from rupees 50 to rupees 150, fourteen Subordinate Judges with salaries at rupees 500, and a hundred and ten District Munsifs with salaries ranging from rupees 200 to rupees 300. The departments of Government other than the Revenue and the Judicial, as for instance the Account Offices, the Educational, Registration, Stamps, Medical, Police, Jails, Public Works and Railway Departments, and the Uncovenanted Secretariat, contain a large number of well paid appointments. At the Presidency town there are several miscellaneous appointments with salaries ranging up to rupees 1,500, which are open to members of the Uncovenanted Service. The proportion of the Uncovenanted Service proper, a term almost synonymous with the Native Civil Service, to total population was in 1877-78 about one in 1,980 or about ·05 per cent. Including the inferior agency above referred to, the proportion was about one in 330, or about ·3 per cent. Members of quasi-Government establishments are not included in these calculations. The Covenanted Civil Service on the other hand combined with Staff Corps officers in civil employ numbered in 1877-78 about 300, giving a proportion to total population of about one in 105,323, or about ·0009 per cent. The Uncovenanted Service is for pensionary purposes under the Civil Pension Code, and in that respect all its members are on the same footing. Some of its members, though not all, are provided with leave rules under the Civil Leave Code. The following table shows the exact number of uncovenanted servants as above defined, as the service stood shortly before this volume went to press :—

Collectors' Huzoor and Taluks	4,174
Abkari	52
Law and Justice	3,293
Inam Commission	7
Stamps	37
Observatory	17
Salt	359
Administration	454
Director of Revenue Settlement	496
Director of Revenue Survey	1,523
Ecclesiastical	28

Political	72
Forest	177
Marine	179
Customs	320
District Post	13
Police	3,065
Jails	224
Registration	98
Printing	302
Government Farms	13
Government Botanical Garden	4
Office of the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examination	4
Stamping Weights and Measures	25
Birth and Death Registration	38
Medical	271
Education	698
Total ...	15,943

Other Civil agency.

Below the Uncovenanted Civil Service is a large class of Government servants, with important duties, but whose salaries nevertheless do not place them in that class. The sub-division of the soil into so many independent interests necessitates in particular a large staff of Government officials in connection with revenue administration. Each village has its staff of officials, of whom the most important are the head of the village and magistrate, the accountant, the watchman, and the distributor of water. These will be more particularly described hereafter. If to these are added the large number of peons and other ministerial servants in Government employ, we shall obtain a total under the present head of probably not less than half a lakh of persons. Village servants have no pensions; the rest are provided for under the Civil Pension Code. There are no codified leave rules for this class of public servants.

RELATIONS WITH FOREIGN EUROPEAN POWERS.

Previous history.

The Dutch have had no settlements within the Presidency since 1825, and the Danes none since 1845. The Portuguese settlement of Goa ceased to be within the limits of this Presidency when the North Canara district was transferred to Bombay in 1860. Since 1860 the only foreign European settlements have been those still subsisting, namely the French settlements of Pondicherry in South Arcot, Karikal in Tanjore, Yanam in the Godavari, and Mahé in Malabar. Between 1819 and 1834 the Madras Government were represented on the

Coromandel coast by a general Special Agent. The head-quarters of this officer were at Cuddalore, and his duties consisted in being the medium of communication between the Madras Government on the one side, and on the other side the Dutch Government at Sadras, the Danish Government at Tranquebar, and the French Government at Pondicherry. In 1834, what remained of the Special Agent's duties were transferred to the Collector of South Arcot.

Present relations with France.

Pondicherry being at the present date the centre of government for all the French settlements in India and Indo-China, matters of importance are negotiated through the Collector of South Arcot. Minor matters however at the outlying stations of Karikal, Yanam, and Mahé are dealt with by the Collectors at those places, without reference to Pondicherry. The relations between the Pondicherry Government and the Madras Government are regulated by articles 8, 12, and 14 of the European Treaty of 1814; by the European Convention of 1815; and by two subsidiary and local Conventions, dated 1818 and 1837. Under the Treaty of 1814 the French engaged to erect no fortifications on the continent of India, and to keep in their establishments only such a number of troops as would be sufficient for police purposes. Under article 8 of the Convention of 1815 the English engaged that if at any time war should break out between France and England, neither the French civil officers nor the military force just mentioned should be treated as prisoners of war, but should be given three months to settle their affairs, and should be sent to France along with their families and personal property. Under article 9 of the same Convention it was agreed that persons going over the frontiers for the purpose of absconding from justice, whether on the civil or criminal side, should be mutually restored on application being made by the respective Governments. By the tacit consent however of both the contracting powers, as shown in their subsequent Acts and Declarations, this provision has been held to be in force only so far as it concerns criminal offences of a grave and non-political character; especially such crimes as are described as heinous under the Fugitive Foreign Offenders' Act, No. VII of 1864. There is at the present day no extradition of debtors. The Convention of 1815 as modified by that made locally in 1818, disposes of the salt question between the two Governments. Pondicherry agrees to make no salt for itself in any of its Indian settlements, but to take British made salt at cost price, selling it to its own subjects at approximately the same factitious rate as that which prevails in British territory. The quantity of salt supplied by the British Government to the different settlements is supposed to be no more than suffices for the needs of the French population. In addition to the profit made on the sale of the salt so supplied, the French receive in connection with this subject an

indemnity from the British Government of Rupees 4,41,600. The theory of the indemnity is that it is necessary to pay France to keep her out of the market as a salt-producer, and to avoid additional difficulty on the land customs line. The indemnity is rather of the nature of a political than of a commercial payment. The Convention of 1837 merely renewed that of 1818, with the additional proviso that either contracting party could withdraw at a year's notice.

ADMINISTRATION OF TRIBUTARY STATES AND SPECIAL AGENCIES.

TRAVANCORE STATE.

History of political relations.

The English first settled in Travancore in 1684 at Anjengo, when a Commercial Resident was appointed, whose functions soon became political. In the war in Madura and Tinnevelly in 1756, the Travancoreans, though not actual allies of the British, effected diversions in their favor against the Mahomedans and Polygars whose country they entered for the purpose of plunder through the Ariencavoo or Puliary and Aramboly passes. In the wars with Hyder and Tippoo the Rajah of Travancore was an ally of the British, and in the treaty concluded with the latter in 1784, he was specially named as included in its provisions. In 1788 the Rajah seeing Tippoo establishing himself at Palghaut and Calicut, and by his proximity threatening the lines of Travancore, which connect the ghauts with Cranganore, applied to the British Government for officers and sergeants to drill his troops, but this being refused he accepted the offer of two of the Company's battalions to be stationed on his frontiers at his expense. Notwithstanding this, in the following year Tippoo attacked the lines, and though at first he was unsuccessful and had to retire wounded, yet in a second attempt he forced the lines and ravaged the country. Up to this point the Governor-General had been prevented by the restrictions placed on his power by Act of Parliament from adopting measures to counteract the danger existing from the scarcely concealed hostile intentions of the Sultan of Mysore, but freed from this restraint by the open aggression of Tippoo on an ally, Lord Cornwallis at once decided on war as "a measure not less necessary to vindicate the insulted honor of the nation, than to provide for its future security by accomplishing at a favorable moment the reduction of the power of

Tippoo Sultan." The result of this war was the treaty of 1792, which secured Travancore from further danger. In 1793 the Bombay Government entered into a treaty with the Rajah, by which they bound him to supply a large quantity of pepper for ten years in return for arms and European goods. In 1795 a treaty was concluded with the Rajah by which he agreed to pay an annual subsidy equivalent to the cost of three battalions of sepoys, a company of European Artillery, and two companies of lascars, and in 1805 a further treaty was entered into by which he engaged to make such addition to the payment as should maintain one more regiment of sepoys, and in case an additional force were necessary to defend his territory against attack or invasion, he agreed to contribute such a sum as was just and reasonable in proportion to his revenue. This treaty gave the Governor-General power to interfere in the internal management of the country, and even to assume the direct management of such parts as seemed necessary to provide funds if there were grounds for apprehending failure to defray the expense of the permanent force and of any extraordinary force. The subsidy was finally fixed at Rupees 800,000 at which sum it now stands. In 1808 an insurrection broke out, headed by the Dewan Vailoo Thumby and his brother. The chief object was the assassination of the Resident, Colonel Macaulay, and a party of Nairs endeavoured to surprise him in his house at Cochin, but he escaped on board a vessel in the harbour. The Officer Commanding at Quilon was at first unable to cope with the greatly superior numbers of the rebels, but on being reinforced he marched out and utterly defeated the Dewan who commanded a force of 30,000 men with 18 guns. A British force was then sent to invade Travancore from the South, which, after forcing the Aramboly lines near Cape Comorin and capturing the Forts of Oodiagherry and Pulpanapuram, advanced on the capital and opened up communications with the Quilon force. The Rajah tendered his submission and disclaimed any sympathy with the insurgents. The debts, however, into which the country was thrown by these events prevented the punctual payment of the subsidy, and the administration of the territory would have been assumed under the terms of the treaty of 1805 had not the death of the Rajah and the succession of a female led to the union in the person of Colonel Munro of the combined functions of Resident and Dewan. Under his administration tranquillity was restored, the public services reorganized, debts discharged, and the financial prosperity of the kingdom secured; and in 1829 the Rajah having attained his majority was formally installed, and thenceforth no political troubles affected the State. In 1862 a sunnud was issued by the Governor-General conveying to the Rajah the assurance that on failure of natural heirs the adoption of a successor according to Hindu law would be recognized.

In 1865 a Customs Convention was entered into with Travancore by the British Government. According to this Travancore undertook:—*First.*—To raise the selling price of salt at the coast depôts to the British monopoly price, and at inland depôts to that price *plus* cost of carriage. *Secondly.*—To abolish import duty on all British Indian produce imported by sea or land, and on goods of foreign origin exported through British Indian ports or by land from British territory, receiving as compensation Rupees 40,000 a year. Tobacco is not included. *Thirdly.*—To levy the same import duty as the British Indian Government on foreign goods imported direct, except on cotton and metals, which were to pay 10 per cent., and tobacco, which was to pay 120 rupees per candy. *Fourthly.*—Not to levy export duty of more than 5 per cent. except on timber, pepper, and betel-nut. In consideration of this undertaking the British Government on its part agreed—*First.*—To supply salt at Bombay on the same terms as to the Madras Government, namely, levying no duty, except three pies per maund for petty local expenses. *Secondly.*—To declare Travancore sea-ports to be British Indian ports within the meaning of Section 12, Act VI of 1863, and to levy no duty by sea or land on goods to and from Travancore. Opium is excepted.

Features of the country.

The mountains which separate Travancore on the east from the British provinces of the Coromandel Coast, and which at some points rise to an elevation of 8,000 feet above the sea, are covered with forest jungle; the flat country, which extends to an average distance of about ten miles from the sea inland, is distinguished by an almost unbroken mass of cocoanut and areca palm cultivation, this constituting the wealth of the country. The geological formation is peculiar. The whole country is undulating, and is traversed east to west by numerous rivers, the floods of which arrested by the peculiar action of the Arabian Sea on the coast spread themselves out into numerous lakes or lagoons; these connected by artificial canals, form an inland line of smooth-water communication, which extends nearly the whole length of the coast, and is of great value during the monsoon, when the coast itself is closed to navigation. According to the trigonometrical survey the area is 6,653½ square miles. The population has been given till recently at 1,280,000, but there are reasons for supposing that this number should be nearly doubled. The number of houses is supposed to be about 500,000, giving four or five souls to a house. The forests contain valuable timber, principally teak, anjelly, ebony, and black-wood. The borassus and other palms and the cotton tree are abundant. Elephants, tigers, cheetas, panther (including the black species), bear, bison, elk, deer, nilghau, and various species of monkeys are found in the forests. Pepper and cardamoms and nutmegs and cloves in a less degree, are characteristic productions of Travancore. The ordinary

staple productions are the cocoanut, the areca nut, and the jack fruit, all grown in gardens; various kinds of yams and other farinaceous roots are also grown. Rice is cultivated in the valleys and along the edges of the backwaters and in the tract of the flat country near Cape Comorin known as Nanjinad. Coffee has been introduced of late years by European planters, and is becoming a valuable article of export.

Travancore census.

A census has recently been carried out in Travancore. The rules and arrangements were nearly the same as those adopted in British India. There was first a registration of houses, and then a registration of shops, pagodas, churches, mosques, schools, and chuttrums. This was followed by a preliminary house-to-house enumeration occupying thirty days. Finally there was a synchronous enumeration of the population of the whole State in one day, the 18th May 1875. The result gave the population at 2,311,379 against 1,262,647, the result announced in 1854, and 906,587, the result announced in 1816. The cost of the operation was Rupees 32,000. The difference in accuracy between a census taken as the present one was on scientific principles and former censuses taken on a mere haphazard method is so great that no argument can be raised on the difference between the results. Taking the most important divisions of the community, the figures stand as follows:—Hindus, 1,700,317, or 73·64 per cent.; Christians, 468,518, or 20·29 per cent.; Mahomedans, 139,905, or 6·06 per cent. The feature that will probably cause most surprise in these figures is the large proportion of Christians, amounting to upwards of 20 per cent. of the population against $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the British portion of the Presidency. In Tinnevelly, where this element is strongest in the British Territory, the proportion does not rise above 6 per cent. In fact the total Christian population of the whole of the Madras Presidency is only 545,120 or but one-sixth more than that of Travancore. The Travancore Christians are thus classified:—Syrian Christians, 295,770; Roman Catholics, 109,820; Protestants, 61,284. The Hindus are separated in the census tables into 75 castes, but nearly 50 per cent. of the total are comprised in the two principal castes, Malayala Sudras and Eloovars; the Nairs and Teers of Malabar. The Brahmins only number 38,434, of whom 27,672 are classed as foreign Brahmins. In the matter of education Brahmins, as might be expected, take the lead, 50 per cent. being returned as educated. Among the Nairs the proportion is 21 per cent. Taking the percentage throughout for educated persons it is 11·08 among the males and 46 among females compared with the figures 9·4 and ·16 in the Madras Presidency generally. Looking at the population of the country as now ascertained with respect to area it amounts to 343·4 per square mile. The average in British territory is 226, and the only districts in which the density

of population exceeds Travancore are South Arcot, where it amounts to 360, Malabar, where it is 376, and Tanjore, where it rises to 540. The great increase in the last-named district is evidently due to the fact that there is hardly any unoccupied area in it, whereas in Travancore as in Malabar large areas of primeval forest exist, much of which can never be inhabited.

Taxation in Travancore.

The census shows that the total revenue raised in the State in that year amounted to $2\frac{1}{4}$ rupees per head of the population, or almost the same as in the British territory. The average incidence of the land tax was 11 annas per head as against 1 rupee 6 annas in British territory. This difference, however, is in part counterbalanced by the excess in customs, a great part of which is export duty on agricultural produce. The salt revenue amounted to $7\frac{1}{3}$ annas per head, which is somewhat in excess of the average throughout the British territory. The salt consumed, however, is Bombay salt, the extra cost of carriage of which is now included in the selling price. Fish-curing is also largely carried on.

Growth of the judicial system.

Zillah Courts were first established in Travancore in M. E. 987. They were seven in number, and were placed under the orders of the Dewan, who was then supreme head of all departments. The term regulation had not then come into use. All measures of State were made known by royal proclamations under Sign Manual, or by Sattavari-olais or Hookoonnamas. The duty of these Courts was to inquire into all cases brought before them, civil, criminal, or police, and to report to the Dewan, whose approval in each was necessary to give effect to their proceedings. This patriarchal system remained in force till 990, when an Appellate Huzur Court was formed for the hearing of appeals from the decisions of the Zillah Courts. This court still formed rather an appendage of the Dewan's Cutcherry than an independent Court of Justice. In 993 Tahsildars, who were up to that time confined exclusively to revenue duties, were for the first time invested with jurisdiction in petty cases of police. The first experiment was tried in the outlying taluk of Shencottah, adjoining British territory. In 1007 Munsif Courts were created, vested with jurisdiction in petty police cases and in civil suits not exceeding Rupees 100 in value. In 1010 a general scheme of judicial administration was conceived, founded on the arrangements obtaining in the Madras Presidency, and was carried out by means of seven regulations. Regulation I prescribed the general powers and functions of Munsifs, together with rules of general procedure to be observed in the trial of civil suits. Regulation II provided for the adjudication of suits by punchayets. Regulation III laid down the procedure for execution by Munsifs of decrees passed by all the courts. Regula-

tion IV revised the powers and constitution of Zillah Courts. Regulation V created the Appeal Court subsequently called the Sudr. Regulation VI invested the Tahsildars with police powers. Regulation VII created Circuit Judges, and, in addition to defining their powers, laid down the procedure to be observed in the trial and commitment of criminal cases. These regulations, though modified subsequently in some respects, form still the groundwork of the present judicial machinery. In 1023 sub-officers of police were appointed to exercise the powers of the police officer or Tahsildar during his absence for the commitment of cases only. In 1025 a regulation was passed reducing the number of Munsifs and relieving them of the duty of executing decrees passed by the Appeal and Zillah Courts. In the same year a law was passed to enable parties to sue *in formâ pauperis*. In 1030 an important administrative change was made. Revenue divisions were formed and the Dewan Peishcars, who were till then doing duty in the Huzur Cutcherry in charge of special departments under the orders of the Dewan, were sent out to take charge of them with powers of general control and supervision in all matters, revenue, magisterial, and police. They were still subject to the orders of the Dewan as head of the Administration and Chief Magistrate. In 1032 Circuit Courts were abolished and Sessions Courts, three in number, were constituted in their place. In 1036 Sessions Courts were in their turn abolished, and the Zillah Judges were invested with the full powers of the former Circuit Judges. This regulation provided also for the adoption of the scale of punishments prescribed in the Penal Code of British India. It also conferred on single judges jurisdiction in causes up to Rupees 300, and in 1038 appeals in such cases were made inadmissible; but this was rescinded and superseded by Regulation II of 1041, by which small causes involving sums up to Rupees 10 before Munsifs, and up to Rupees 50 before Zillah Judges from the judgments of Munsifs, were determinable without appeal. This jurisdiction still continues in force. In 1037 a very important reform was introduced, a regulation being passed which virtually adopted the British Civil Procedure Code. The present Sudr Court was at the same time constituted under that title, the name of Appeal Court being discarded. Regulation I of 1039 was passed for the punishment of offences against the telegraph. Regulation II of the same year created copyright in books. Breaches of contract by artizans and workmen were made punishable by Regulation I of 1040. In 1040 another regulation was passed, defining the status of Vakils, their discipline and rights in relation to the courts. A statute of limitation was also passed in the same year. By Regulation I of 1041, single judges of Zillah Courts were empowered to try and determine both criminal and civil cases. In the same year a regulation raised the jurisdiction of Munsifs to suits of Rupees 200

value. Regulation III of 1041 legalized admission of approvers in criminal cases. Regulation I of 1042 introduced an amended system of registration of assurances based upon that obtaining in British India, but did not come into force till 1043. The use of stamped cadjans and the then existing agency of registration ceased from the date last named. Regulation I of 1043 legalized the employment of Vakils in criminal cases. Regulation I of 1047 provided for the better conduct of business in the Sudr Court by giving a casting vote to the Chief Judge in certain cases. Another regulation was passed in the same year to relieve the Dewan of magisterial functions and appellate jurisdiction in criminal cases, and for redistribution of magisterial powers generally. In 1049 a Zillah Court was established at Alwaye presided over by a single judge.

Revenue Regulations.

Of revenue regulations not many have been passed. In 1035 and 1036 regulations were made for the levy of port dues at the port of Alleppey. Regulation II of 1040 provided for the adjudication of claims to waste lands, and rules for the sale of waste lands with special reference to the cultivation of coffee in the hill tracts of the State. In 1042 a royal proclamation was issued defining the rights and relations between Jenmies or landlords and their tenants.

Present judicial machinery.

The present judicial machinery is thus the outcome of the legislation of more than half a century. It may be summarized as follows. First as to criminal jurisdiction. Sub-Magistrates are Magistrates of first instance in all cases, and have power to pass sentence of fine up to Rupees 10, imprisonment up to 30 days, and corporal punishment up to 6 lashes. The Magistrates have power of fining up to Rupees 50, imprisonment 3 months, and corporal punishment up to 1 dozen lashes. The Criminal Courts have power of fining up to Rupees 500, imprisonment 3 years, and corporal punishment up to 3 dozen lashes. All cases involving punishments higher than what is here mentioned must be referred to the Sudr Court for approval, whether the Criminal Court records a finding of conviction or acquittal. Appeals lie from Sub-Magistrates to Magistrates, from Magistrates to the Criminal Courts, and from the Criminal Courts to the Sudr, except in cases of disputed possession of lands, &c., wherein the order of the Magistrate is final as to present occupancy till a decision from a competent court of civil jurisdiction is obtained. The Sudr have also a general power of revisions over all the decisions of the lower courts; for this purpose they peruse the calendars which are submitted to them in every case disposed of, in which the Zillah Court passes remarks. Next as to civil jurisdiction. Munsifs have jurisdiction in suits up to Rupees 200, their decisions in suits up to Rupees 10 on the small cause side being final. The Zillah Courts have original jurisdiction without limit, and in suits up to Rupees 50 on the small

cause side, in appeal from the decisions of Munsifs their judgment is final. The Sudr have no original jurisdiction, but receive appellate regular appeals from the Zillah Courts and special appeals from decisions of Munsifs, where points of law are involved. The Maharajah is the highest appellate authority in the State in all criminal and civil matters. All punishments exceeding 14 years of imprisonment or 36 stripes, all punishments involving imprisonment for life, and all sentences of capital punishment, must be confirmed by the Maharajah.

The Bar.

There are Vakils attached to courts of all grades, Munsifs, Zillah Courts, and the Sudr. Local examinations are held, and such candidates only as pass are allowed to practise in the courts, those passing high being selected for the Sudr, and those passing lower being permitted to plead in the Zillah and Munsifs' Courts. Three Barristers of the High Court of Madras are also enrolled Pleaders of the Sudr. Several of the other pleaders have passed the British legal tests. The nominal roll of the Sudr Bar consists of 51 pleaders, and that of the Zillah Courts of 84 pleaders. Attached to the Sudr and to each of the Zillah Courts is a Sircar Vakil, who discharges the duties of a public prosecutor in criminal cases and those of a Government Vakil in civil suits where the Government is interested.

Criminal Courts.

The Criminal Courts of First Instance are those of the Sub-Magistrate. Tahsildars are ex-officio Sub-Magistrates, as also are Police Amins. The former perform, in addition to their magisterial work, revenue and police duties; the latter similarly combine police with magisterial work. There are special Sub-Magistrates in a few places. Previous to 1048 there were altogether 57 officers exercising the functions of Sub-Magistrates. The Tahsildar Sub-Magistrates were divided into three classes in respect of their salaries, which were Rupees 100, 70, and 56, respectively. In the year 1049 the Maharajah abolished the last class altogether, making the salaries of all Rupees 70 and upwards. The Police Amin Magistrates were divided into two classes on salaries of Rupees 35 and 30. In their case the salaries were raised to Rupees 50 and 40 according to length of service. As to the standard of qualification of the Sub-Magistrates, it may be observed that they have had previous training for the most part in the various ministerial offices, Huzur, Division, and Taluk. Some of them have passed the legal tests, and upwards of 20 are well acquainted with English. The Dewan Peishcars who are in charge of the divisions are ex-officio Magistrates, and are four in number. The Commercial Agent at Alleppey, the Superintendent of the Cardamom Hills, and the Conservator of Forests are also Magistrates. Thus there are in all 7 officers exercising the powers of a Magistrate. Regulation II of 1047, which was passed towards the close of the preceding year, which relieved the Dewan of direct magisterial functions, reserving

to him as before full executive and administrative control, and which redistributed magisterial powers among the various grades, came into force from the beginning of 1048. Nearly all criminal cases come before the Sub-Magistrates in the first instance, few original cases being taken up and tried by the Magistrates. When cases are referred to the Magistrate by the Sub-Magistrate for higher punishment or other reasons, such cases are taken as original cases on the file of the Magistrate.

Police.

There is no distinct organized Police in Travancore, such as has of late years been introduced into British India. That is to say, so far as the supervising and controlling agency is concerned, the Police has no separate establishment; the mass of the force however has always occupied a distinct footing and been employed exclusively for Police duties. The Dewan Peishcars or Divisional Officers, and the Tahsildars, combine revenue, magisterial and police functions, while Sub-Magistrates are Magistrates as well as Police Officers. There are however some purely Police Officers answering to the grade of Inspectors in the British Police. There were eight of these including two newly appointed in the year under report. Their salaries, which varied much before, were raised during 1049 and fixed with reference to a scale by which the officers were graded into two classes according to their service and qualifications. Next come some ranks in the force which, known under various designations, Cutwalls, Police Naiks, Aminadars, Vicharipoos, Jemadar, Havildar, Duffadar, and the like, may be classed as answering to the grade of Head Constables. Their number is 56, and their pay ranges from Rupees 6 in the case of the Duffadar to Rupees 17 in the case of the Cutwall. The rest of the force may be termed "privates," and are known as Naikens, Moodalpers, Peons, and the like; their pay ranges from Rupees 4½ to 6, and they number about 1,900. The total strength of the force of all ranks in 1048 was 1,964, and has been augmenting considerably of late years, 31 being added in the year 1049. The whole force in 1040 was 1,043 and in 1045 was 1,667. The cost of the Police Force in 1048 was Rupees 8,960 per mensem, or for the year Rupees 1,07,520. The cost of the Police Magisterial Officers and their establishments and Huzur Central Office and establishment charged to Police amounted to Rupees 2,611 or 31,332. The entire cost was thus Rupees 1,38,852. All the principal ranks are stipendiary, and are paid exclusively by the State. The Deracavalgars or village watchmen, the remains of the ancient hereditary Police still found in Shencottah and Thovallay, are remunerated partly by the Sircar in money, and partly by the ryots in kind. The lowest class are required to render some kind of police duties, such as guarding public cutcherries and buildings in their own villages, but receive no remuneration.

Jails.

There are four jails in the State, are all under the general control of the Dewan. The Central Jail and another supplementary to it are at the capital; there is one at Quilon and another at Alleppey. The Durbar Physician, as Principal of the Medical Department, has chief medical charge, one or two subordinates having immediate charge of the hospitals attached to each jail. The charge of the jails themselves is vested in superintendents or jailors. No valuation has been attempted of the work done by the convicts as a body; a large number of them are employed in the making and repairing of roads at the capital and at Quilon. Others are told off in small parties, from day to day, for garden-work in the palaces, hospitals, Sircar buildings, and public gardens. Parties are told off to cart their own daily provisions, to cook their own meals, to wash their own clothes, to shave, to draw water for cooking and cleaning the jails and urinal, to make their own fetters, and to remove poudrette. Some are employed to saw timber in the Marhamut workshop, and a few are employed in ivory carving. By the custom of the country Brahmins and females of all classes are exempt from hard labor or labor of any kind; they are from the same cause free from capital punishment.

Registration of Assurances.

The old system of Registration of Assurances, which was superseded in 1042 by the regulation now in force, provided a regular agency of village notaries, who derived their appointments from, and acted under, the orders of the Sudr Court. Their number was unlimited. They were remunerated, not by salaries, but by fees levied upon the instruments which they registered, and which had to be drawn up by themselves and to be transcribed for registry. The stamped cadjans were supplied to them through the Munsif Courts, and were sold at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being credited to the State. The Village Registrars (or Oorkanakens) had power to make summary inquiries into objections against the execution of the deeds, and to refuse registration in case they were deemed valid. They were also prohibited from registering whenever they found that the Sircar had liens on the property, such as for arrears of revenue, or had them already under attachment, or that they were Service or Personal Inam tenures. The revenues under the system did not average more than Rupees 1,200, as unstamped documents were not invalid but were only subjected to a penalty of 3 per cent. on value when produced before a Court. This unpaid agency did not work either to the profit of the State or to the satisfaction of the public, and the latter were subjected to much annoyance, delay, and extortion. A reform was effected by new legislation, which brought into existence the present system. Under this the Registrars are paid servants of the State, divided into four classes with reference to the quantity of work of the various districts. As a rule, there is a Registrar to each Revenue

Taluk, and none is appointed who has not passed a public examination in the law and rules of Registration. Above the District Registrars are Inspectors, who are three in number, and whose duty it is to inspect every Registry Office within their ranges once in two months at least, examine the state of the registers, and report the result in their fortnightly diaries. The work of these District Registrars is checked and controlled by a Central Office, at the head of which is the Huzur Registrar.

Tenures of land.

The broad distinctions in the tenures of land in Travancore are Jenm, Madambimar and Sircar.

Jenm lands.

The Jenm lands may be sub-divided into Devasom, or those held by pagodas, and Bramasum, or those held by Brahmins. The normal condition of the Jenm tenure is absolute freedom from tax of any kind, and the tenure dates from that remote period of antiquity when, according to tradition, the "Kerala" country was reclaimed from the sea and parcelled out by Parsurama among a colony of Brahmins. The colony still remains, and is known as that of the sixty-four village communities. The tenure ceases the moment it passes into alien hands for a money consideration, whatever the nature of the transaction. The mere letting out of lands however for annual rent to a tenant does not vitiate the tenure. The moment an alienation or kanom takes place, the land becomes liable to a light tax called rajabogum, amounting in the case of gardens to one-sixth or one-eighth of the full rental (Venpauttom or Kundapauttom); in the case of paddy lands the tax amounts to nearly the same proportion of the full grain-rent, that is, half, three-tenths, or one-tenth of the quantity of seed required to sow the land, the full grain-rent being represented by an average of three times the quantity of seed. If the Kundapauttom of the alienated garden was fanams 100, the rajabogum or karum or tax would be nearly $16\frac{1}{2}$ or $12\frac{1}{4}$ fanams; in the case of paddy lands, if the land was one parah khandum, that is, a block of land which would require one parah of seed, the full grain-rent would be 3 parahs. The light tax chargeable would be only $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{10}$, $\frac{1}{10}$ of one parah. Even if the mortgage is afterwards redeemed by the Jenmi, the light tax continues on the land for ever and at the same rate. The only variation is for worse; for if the mortgagee dies heirless, the Sircar seizes the tenure, transfers the land to the head Sircar, and pays to the Jenmi or landlord the residue of rent or mitchavarom if any was paid to him by the deceased. Again, if the land is abandoned (Nirthul) by the kanom holder on account of its becoming unfit for cultivation, from various causes, it is at once transferred to Sircar and granted as a new Sircar pattom tenure if it is ever reclaimed. A Jenmi, as a rule, never alienates absolutely (Uttipare) except to other Jenmies, Brahmins or Davasoms (pagodas).

Madambimar lands.

The Madambimars are, in common parlance, also called Jenmies, though strictly speaking they are not so, because their lands are subject to the rajabogum, whether in their own hands or alienated to others. They are generally Nairs, or others not Brahmins. These also seldom alienate by absolute sale; if they do, the tenure is extinguished as with Jenm lands, the land is transferred to Sircar, the purchase money, less a fine of 25 per cent., is given credit for, and interest is allowed on the 75 per cent. only, the remainder of interest being added to the existing rajabogum karom, which will still be much short of full pattom or rent of the land. At every alienation, however, this fine of 25 per cent. is levied, till sometimes the purchase money entirely disappears, and interest, added to rajabogum which continues unabated, may absorb all the rental and even exceed it.

Sircar lands.

All other lands are known as Sircar that is liable to full assessment or pattom, whether actually paying it at the full or reduced rates or not paying it at all, as when given away as Inams. The Sircar, in fact, takes in respect of these lands the place of the Jenmi or landlord. These may be broadly sub-divided into six classes—(1), Kundukrishipattom; (2), Kuttagapattom; (3), Vempattom; (4), Otti; (5), Anubogum, &c., or personal Inams; and (6), Ulliam or service. It is not easy to state precisely how the proprietary right in such lands came to be vested in the Sircar or the governing power, the primeval tenure of all lands on the coast being pure Jenm according to accepted tradition. Probably, when the Rajahs were called in by election by the Numboory landlords, as they did once in twelve years for the purpose of Government, some lands were granted to them. Accretion of escheated lands, unoccupied lands reclaimed in the course of years, annexed home farms of subjugated chiefs, and lands purchased for money from the Dutch, have also contributed to increase the roll of Sircar lands. The kandukrishi lands are literally the "home farms" of the sovereign. The lands are theoretically speaking cultivated by the sovereign himself. Seed and hire for cultivation, the latter being given in kind, used to be advanced to the actual tenants and recovered with interest out of the harvest, of which they get for their share generally a little more than half of the gross produce. Of late years this system has been discontinued, the grain-rent alone being recovered from the cultivators in kind. The tenants are really tenants at will. They cannot sell even the occupancy right, nor can they transfer it without the previous consent of the Sircar. As a matter of fact, however, the Sircar never interferes with their occupancy. The grain-rent is collected in kind, is stored in various granaries, and is spent according to the requirements of the large feeding-house at the capital. If there is any surplus, it is sold and the proceeds credited to the general exchequer. (2) The few lands which now remain under the

head of Kuttagapattom are the purchases from Dutch (Palipoft), from the Jenmi (Pooliendurti), and the jungle lands called Kudukaval forming the frontier defences towards Cape Comorin. The bulk of such tenures have been sold in past years and converted into vempattom. The above are rented out to the highest bidder, who levies full rent and makes some profit himself. This system of farming out for short periods, which leads to oppression of the tenants, is now discouraged. (3) The vempattom lands are lands liable to and paying full tax or assessment. In the case of gardens a general deduction of 25 per cent. is allowed as compensation to the owner for the cost and labor of growing the gardens. In the case of paddy lands 20 or 30 per cent. is allowed as a permanent deduction for adverse seasons, blights, and floods of ordinary kind. When an extraordinary drought or flood occurs, remissions on a larger scale are allowed as a matter of grace. In the case of lands lying on the borders of backwaters or rivers the assessment is remitted on fallows of alternate years once in three years or once in four years. These fallows having been determined originally on the oath of the ryots, the remission is called Sathiakoravu. In the Nanjanaud, where there is river irrigation which is sometimes deficient, remissions are allowed for blighted or withered crop, though never for waste lands. Where the water-supply is dependent on the falling rains and on rivers, both waste lands and withered crop are allowed for. A deduction is also allowed when dry crops are cultured on paddy lands. The lands falling under this head were formerly unalienable by the occupant ryots, the proprietary right being theoretically vested in the State. In 1401 rights of full property were conferred on them without payment, but subject to a fine or fee of 2 per cent. on the money consideration indicated in the conveyances. This fee yields an annual sum of Rupees 30,000, representing a value of transactions in this description of land (before unsaleable and unmarketable) of Rupees 15,00,000. (4) Otti, or as it is commonly called Pandar Otti, denotes a mortgage, the parties to the transaction being the Sircar on one side as mortgagor and the ryot holding the land on the other as mortgagee, the consideration being either actual cash borrowed by the State or something equivalent. It is, in fact, in no respect legally different from a simple mortgage dealing, or kanom, between a jenmi who borrows and a tenant who lends the money. One kind of consideration is actually money borrowed from the ryot to meet State necessities. Another kind is an acknowledgment of money invested in forming a garden, repairing tanks, making improvements or reclaiming lands, from all of which either new revenues have been added or old revenues revived and secured. A third kind consists of State debt which came with the various petty kingdoms and principalities from time to time subdued and annexed to Travancore. A

fourth kind consists of similar debts coming with escheats. Interest is allowed on these loans at rates rising from 5 to 12 per cent. per annum according to the circumstances and times when the obligations were contracted. These transactions are in many cases several centuries old. The interest is made payable by a deduction from the tax or pattom on particular lands. Whatever remains after deducting the interest and adding rajabogum on the full pattom becomes the next tax payable on otti lands. These lands are alienable at will, but at every alienation both the principal and interest are reduced 25 per cent.; in other words, the Sircar repudiates the obligation to that extent by refusing to pay the full original interest. When the number of hands thus changed amount to 16, the debt is extinguished and the land begins to pay full assessment. In some few places the fine is levied in cash in a lump, leaving the assessment on the lands as favorable as before. Economically and financially this plan is by far better, as the value of property remains the same to the ryot and the Sircar is benefited by the lump receipt and is saved the constant correction of accounts. In Nanjanaud no such fines are levied on alienations of otti lands, unless the family of the survey holder becomes extinct. In some few cases near the capital no fines are levied under any circumstances. (5) Anubogum lands are held on *bonâ fide* favorable or personal Inam tenures, and are liable to pay no assessment except the usual rajabogum at $\frac{1}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$. In some cases they are liable to quit-rents in addition. They may be mortgaged and redeemed without fines, but when absolutely sold the tenure is resumed and the land transferred to "otti" and dealt with under the rules applicable to that head. (6) Oollium, or Vritti tenures constitute the Service Inams. They are held either for services actually performed at the present time, or for former services; in the latter case they are of the nature of Inams held for personal benefit. As a general rule, the former are inalienable, and the latter, when alienated, become liable to fines or ottivilakum. But even in regard to the former a succession uty or addukuvathu is levied on every change of incumbency calculated at 50 per cent. of a year's rental (pattom) for gardens and $2\frac{1}{2}$ fanams per parah of paddy land. If the holder's family becomes extinct, the tenure is either transferred on payment of a high fine or premium (adiyara), or sold to the highest bidder at a public auction, when sometimes very high prices are realized. The bulk of these tenures are the Nair Vrittis, the holders of which are bound to supply at certain fixed prices vegetables and provisions for pagodas, for ootperas or charity feeding-houses, and for the royal birthday; they are also bound to raise sheds, to thatch and guard public buildings, and to do occasional peon's duties. They receive advances from the public funds and settle accounts subsequently on

producing vouchers for the due delivery of the provisions, supplies, or work done. The Nair Vrittis are held free of all assessment or pattom, but they are liable to the payment of the rajabogum quit-rents at $\frac{1}{8}$, &c., as already alluded to, *plus* a fee called "load-tax" (chumadupanam), which is about 2 fanams payable on the whole Vritti. This is supposed to represent the commuted value of a load of vegetables, &c., which each Vritti holder was bound by the tenure to bring without payment. When Vrittis have been found excessive in proportion to the service required, they have been charged with $\frac{1}{2}$ pattom and left with the holders. Where lands were insufficient, they have been supplemented by grants of money from the State treasury without interest. Where there were no lands previously, money grants were made on the same condition for service. When the service is not rendered for a time, the full pattom on the lands is levied as a penalty if the holder refuses to render it, and the land itself becomes liable to be resumed and transferred to another. This, however, seldom happens. Where the money loans received from the State alone constitute the consideration for the service, it can be redeemed and enfranchised by the repayment of the original sum if the holder is inclined to relieve himself from the service. This measure was sanctioned recently. The Nair Vrittis consist of about 20,000 holders of 5,764 gardens and 220,000 parahs of paddy land; the annual rental of the former being about Rupees 9,000 and that of the latter about Rupees 2,00,000. The State loans advanced for service amount to about Rupees 2,00,000, the interest on which is about Rupees 12,000 at 6 per cent. Thus, the total value of the tenures is about Rupees 2,21,000, and deducting from this quit-rent paid amounting to about Rupees 21,000, the net value may be given at Rupees 2,00,000. Other kinds of Service Inams are of a miscellaneous and local kind, such as those belonging to canoe services, elephant trapping, wrestlers, songsters, coppersmiths, potters, musicians, dancers, &c.

Assumed Pagoda lands.

Of the Devasom Jenmi lands alluded to above, 378 pagodas were assumed and brought under the direct management of the Sircar in the year 987, during the administration of Colonel J. Munro. They consisted of 62,000 gardens and 548,000 parahs of paddy lands, the former yielding a rental of about Rupees 50,000, the latter Rupees 3,50,000, total Rupees 4,00,000. The annual expenditure out of this is only Rupees 2,50,000, leaving a surplus Rupees 1,50,000.

Large Jenm holdings.

There are certain large Jenm holdings called Adhigara Oyevoo and Desa Oyevoo, consisting of compact blocks of territory. The largest of these is the Edapully Rajah, a Numboori Brahmin of the highest rank. He was and still is in some respects an independent chief, and is entitled to all sources of revenue, whether actually levied

by himself or administered by the State for him ; compensation being settled and paid every year. He pays no tribute excepting a sum of Rupees 1,000 per annum, which is for police services rendered. He has, however, no police, civil or criminal authority within the principality. The annual revenue amounts to about Rupees 75,000. The Pooniat Rajah is another chief whose tenure is peculiar. Attingul consists of two Adhigaroms, and is the private property of the Ranees. The annual rental is probably below Rupees 20,000. Killimanoor is the estate of the Coil-Tumburans, who are generally allied by marriage to the Ranees and, consequently, to the reigning Sovereigns. There are other large holdings in which, besides exemption from tax of any kind, the proprietors have power to deal with their property without the interference of Government.

1. Mahadevaswami Pagoda (Kottarakarray).
2. Kavioor do. (Tiruvellah).
3. Kamooganicheri do. (Puthanapooram).
4. Elankonappen do.
5. Pangotoo Krishnaswamy (Kottarakarray).
6. Maunadi Bagavathy (Koonatoor).
7. Paniannarkavoo (Tiruvellah).
8. Congrapully Numburipad's Sastha (Canjeripully).
9. Agherra Numbooripaud (Kottarakarray).
10. Do. and Omanpalh do. (Quilon).
11. Vunchipelar Peruvauthanum Sastha.

The lands of the Sree Pudmanabha Swami temple extend over the whole of Southern Travancore, and are for purposes of account divided into three divisions, Madapaud, Neendakara Sanketham, and Colatoor-Melanganom. The tenure, which is pure Jenm, dates from very remote antiquity. The annual rental of these lands is about Rupees 73,000, derived from 21,517 gardens and 92,960 parahs of paddy lands, the former yielding Rupees 14,000, the latter Rupees 59,000. The funds belonging to this pagoda are separately collected and accounted for, but the State has a general control ; any surplus is credited to the State, and deficits, when they occur, are made good by the State.

Surveys and Assessment.

The earliest survey or ayacut remembered by the oldest living accountant in Travancore is that of the year 914, when Travancore was within its ancient limits. There were several surveys both anterior and subsequent. The surveys on which the present revenue arrangements are based are those of the year 948 ; this was a very comprehensive one, and embraced nearly the whole of the lands, gardens and paddy fields now belonging to the State. There has however been subsequent surveys. No idea is afforded by the ayacut accounts of

the whole extent of paddy lands, but those which come under assessment consist of 31,81,620 parahs of lands, or about 40,000 acres at 8 parahs per acre, assessed with a net revenue, after making all deductions, of Rupees 8,08,958, or 2 Rupees per acre. It is impossible to say that the ayacut rates of assessment on paddy lands have been fixed on a uniform plan or principle, but a very minute local appraisement by arbiters and Sircar officers seems to have preceded the operation of classification. Each field expressed by the quantity of seed it took to sow was rated at so many parahs of produce, and commonly expressed as double, treble, quadruple, &c. North of Trevandrum the average rate of rent was about double the seed. In the south it went up to beyond ten times, but the average was probably five times, and in recent years all excessive rates above ten were reduced to that level. The average gross produce in the north may be put at between 7 and 8 times, and that in the south at between 12 to 15 times the amount of seed. The Sircar share is thus about a fourth in the one case and a third in the other.

Extra cesses.

The above are the standard pattom rates on the lands. There are however various other extra cesses, about 200 in number, corresponding to the abwabs of North India, collected over and above the standard rates. They amount to Rupees 60,000, and are met with in all taluks.

Mode of collecting assessment.

The taxes on gardens are collected in money with a few exceptions. The tax on paddy land is collected part in grain and part in money, according to the wants of the Sircar with reference to neighbouring temples and charity feeding institutions. The proportion may be stated as a third in grain and two-thirds in money. All grain received in kind, but found in excess of Sircar wants, is commuted into a money payment at varying rates. For gardens 10 equal kists are required and for paddy 4 kists for each crop; only two instalments however are allowed for the portion payable in money.

Former customs duties.

As in British India, there were inland and frontier and sea customs duties levied in Travancore up to the year 1012, when the inland transit duties were abolished, and the frontier and sea-board chowkeys alone were retained. There were import as well as export duties on almost every article up to the year 1040, when, by a convention with the British Government, import duty, except on articles brought direct from countries other than British India and Cochin, was abolished. The Government undertook to compensate Travancore by an annual cash payment. The export duty was retained, but it was in no case to exceed 5 per cent., except in the case of timber, which was subject to a duty of 10 per cent. The articles of Sircar monopoly, namely, salt, tobacco, pepper, and opium, were exempted from the convention.

The pepper monopoly was abolished in 1036, and superseded first by an excise duty of Rupees 15 per candy levied in the taluks before the article left, and afterwards in 1044 by an export duty of 5 rupees per candy; this continues to the present day. The monopoly in the highest year has yielded a net revenue of Rupees 3,50,000 and in average years Rupees 1,50,000. Under the excise system it yielded a maximum of Rupees 95,000 and an average of Rupees 55,000; under the present arrangement the export duty gives Rupees 15,000 on an average. Tobacco, which was also a strict monopoly, was formerly imported by the Sircar from British India and Ceylon and sold in the Sircar's own bankshalls. This system was abolished in 1038 and superseded by an import duty, which has been successively reduced from Rupees 190 to Rupees 110 upon the best kind. Under the present arrangement merchants import tobacco on their own account, but by certain routes only, and not below a certain quantity; and they are required to bond it in Sircar warehouses. In the time of the monopoly it yielded a maximum of Rupees 12,00,000 and an average of Rupees 10,00,000; under the excise arrangement it yielded at first nearly Rupees 8,00,000 and afterwards Rupees 9,00,000. The quantity of tobacco consumed has more than doubled itself between 1033 and 1049.

Salt monopoly.

Salt was made a monopoly of the State in the last two months of the year 988. In the following year 989 the sales stood thus: home-made white salt 50,000 Indian maunds, black salt 81,000 Indian maunds, total 131,030 Indian maunds; foreign salt imported 153,000 Indian maunds; grand total 284,000 Indian maunds. The total revenue yielded to the Sircar was Rupees 1,85,149. The price was Rupee 1-1-0 per maund for the best quality, lower prices being put on inferior salt. At the end of the year the selling price was reduced to Annas 11⅔ per maund. The amount of revenue and the prices remained with little variations till the year 1034, when the price of foreign salt was raised to Rupee 1-1-0 and the revenue indicated a corresponding increase. In the year 1037 the selling price of home-made white salt was raised and made equal to that of foreign salt. But this increase in the selling rate was then made applicable only to the districts north of the Wurkally barrier. In the following year the increase was extended to all white salt sold throughout the country. The revenue continued to increase from year to year until 1040, when it reached Rupees 5,48,659. At the close of this year, by an arrangement with the British Government, the price was assimilated to that of British India; that is to say, from Rupee 1-1-0 it became Rupee 1-8-0 per maund. In all the subsequent revisions made by this Government the Sircar has followed the example set. In 1041 the price was raised from Rupee 1-8-0 to 1-11-0, and in 1045 it was raised

from Rupee 1-11-0 to Rupees 2, which latter is the price ruling at present. At the time when the price was first assimilated with the British rate, it became necessary to discontinue the production and sale of black salt; from its bad quality this could not be sold at the same price with the rest.

Present supply of salt.

The present supply is derived partly from the Sircar pans in South Travancore, four in number, and partly from Bombay. Occasionally salt from Tinnevelly or Tanjore is imported. The actual prime cost of home-made salt is 1 anna and 10 pies per Indian maund, or Rupees 13¼ per garce. Imported Bombay salt costs the Sircar Rupees 38 per garce when landed and delivered into the stores. Unlike the operations on the other coast, there are in Travancore two seasons of manufacture, one between September and November and the other between January and June. Salt is not taken over from the ryot as soon as made, but is buried in pits and allowed to season till the bitter taste has worn off. It is dug up and received into store as required, and then only payment of the kudiwarum is made. The interval between manufacture and payment is sometimes several years. This is the system of the country, but a concession was made in the year under report, by advancing 50 per cent. of the price on the estimated quantity as soon as it was removed from the pans.

Abkári.

The revenue from Abkári is managed much as it is in British India; that is to say, the monopoly of selling toddy and country liquor is farmed out, taluk by taluk, to the highest bidder. The contractors are forbidden from selling below certain rates; the Tahsildars recover the rents from the contractors in ten equal monthly instalments, the last two months of the year being left out. If the contractor chooses to register sub-contracts or sub-leases before the Tahsildar, this officer is authorized to help the contractor in enforcing recovery of his dues by summary process. Fifty-seven years ago the revenue from this source was Rupees 41,124, and continued fluctuating between that sum and Rupees 59,448 up to the end of the year 1033. Since then it has risen rapidly, and in 1047 had reached Rupees 1,06,591.

Opium.

The opium monopoly includes also that in gunja, which is cultivated in the southern extremity of the State. Opium was made a source of revenue for the first time in 1037; it then yielded Rupees 14,774, but fell off in subsequent years owing to losses sustained by the contractors. It is again reviving at present, the rental for the last two years having been Rs. 9,161 and 10,178; the amounts were fully recovered within the close of each year. Opium is consumed chiefly by the Moplas, north of Quilon, and especially in Meenachel, a hilly taluk, where the drug is resorted to as a preventive of malarious fever. A single contractor usually holds the farm of this monopoly for the whole State.

Forest. The whole range of forests in the country is under the charge of the Conservator, excepting the Cardamom Hills, mostly included in the Thodupulay Taluk, and a small tract in South Travancore, both of which are separately administered. The forest tract in South Travancore is under the control of the Revenue Department. Timber is felled here at Government cost, and periodically sold by public auction at a depôt established in the Thovalay Taluk under the superintendence of an officer called Aminadar. Besides the general conservancy of the forests, the Conservator is charged with the duty of supervising the trapping of elephants, the collection of revenue from miscellaneous forest produce, the supplying of timber for Government requirements, and other items. The most valuable timber trees produced in the forests are teak, blackwood and ebony, in respect of which the Government has a monopoly. No permits are granted to private individuals for felling them. Timber of other kinds is allowed to be cut by private parties on payment of a fee, or kutticanom, at certain fixed rates. As a means of check, watch stations are provided at various places, and timber felled under permits is subject to inspection at these stations in the course of transit.

Cardamoms. One item of miscellaneous forest produce is cardamom. In the forests under the Conservator this spice is not regularly cultivated, but grows wild. Of late, however, it would seem that attention has been directed towards bringing it under regular cultivation as in the Cardamom Hills. Cardamom gardens to the extent of some hundred acres have been marked out. The Cardamom Hills were under the supervision of the Conservator of Forests till the year 1044, when they were transferred to a special Superintendent. The undivided attention which the change has secured for the industry has produced increased efficiency in the working of the department.

Davasom. The revenue of the lands belonging to the Sri Padmanathasawmi Pagoda, which have been acquired from remote times by gift, amount to Rupees 75,000 and go to defray the daily expenses of the institution; surpluses are credited to the State treasury and deficits, which rarely occur, are made good from it. This temple is more or less independent of Government management. The State had no concern with the management of any temples before the year 987, when the landed property of 378 temples was assumed and the management taken over. Other minor temples, 1,171 in number, which had no property, were also assumed either before or at that date. The expenditure, establishments and rules for management, were settled on this occasion on a permanent basis. The lands thus assumed now yield a revenue of Rupees 4,30,000, while the annual expenditure on the 378 pagodas concerned with them amount to about Rupees

3,92,000. The annual grants for the other 1,171 temples amount to about Rupees 28,000. The interest of Government in respect of these institutions is for the most part that of a trustee, and as a church establishment they cannot be regarded as expensive.

The ootperas or charitable feeding institutions are 45 in number, inclusive of 3 conjee-houses. The chief is at the capital, and is known as the agrasala. The others are distributed at convenient stages on the line of road commencing from the Aramboli Pass in the south and ending at Paravoor in the north. The former is intended to feed all comers, the latter to feed travellers only—Brahmins are the chief recipients of the charity. Of the conjee-houses one is at Thovalay close to the Aramboli Pass, where all classes and castes of travellers are fed; one is at Shencottah a little way beyond the Ariengavoo Pass, where also all classes are served; the third is at the capital, which is confined to the very poorest of all classes and creeds, and chiefly to the dumb, the lame, the sick and the blind. The ootperas are primarily intended for the relief of the poor and wayworn traveller, but it cannot be denied that they have come in some cases to be regarded as feeding-houses for the poor of a resident population. It may be remarked that 75 per cent. of the people fed at these charitable institutions come from the southern provinces of the Madras Presidency, and from Malabar, and form a kind of migratory population. The reduction of expenditure on ootperas has been kept in view of late years. Ootperas.

The system of State vernacular education embraces—(1) Proverti or Village Schools, (2) Taluk District Schools, and (3) Aided Schools receiving grants. The third class is confined to the town of Trevandrum. The department was organized in the year 1042. The course of instruction in the village schools consists of reading, writing, both on paper and cadjan; arithmetic; geography, both general and of Travancore; and writing from dictation from the History of Travancore. The course of instruction in the taluk schools is the same, but the standard is higher, and Indian History is also taught. Sanscrit is taught in three and Tamil in all of the taluk schools in South Travancore. At the central vernacular school at Trevandrum the standard embraces the first book of Euclid, Algebra (to simple equations), and the History of India and Travancore. In the girls' schools the subjects are the same as in the taluk schools, with the addition of some vocal music. Some of the teachers are females. The class books used in all the vernacular schools have been translated or compiled by a committee who were brought into existence simultaneously with the system of State vernacular education. Uniform fee is collected in every school, namely 2 annas, except at the central school, where it varies with each class from 2 annas to 4 annas. The Vernacular Schools.

first masters of Proverti schools are paid Rupees 7 per mensem and the under-masters each Rupees 5. But the pay is reduced when the fees realized fall short of 25 fanams, or the attendance falls short of 25 boys. Formerly, when this was not attained, pay used to be refused altogether. In a recent year this rule was relaxed, and the masters were paid in proportion to the fees realized. The buildings and furniture are provided by the villagers themselves. Maps alone are at present supplied by the Government. In some schools the boys sit on the ground. The salaries of Taluk Schoolmasters range thus: 1st Master, Rupees 20; 2nd Master, Rupees 12; 3rd Master, Rpees 10; Monitors, Rupees 5. The head-master of the central school is allowed a salary of Rupees 60 and the under-masters from Rupees 30 to 10. The aided schools receive a grant of Rupees 60 per annum each on condition of their teaching the same subjects as are taught in the Government schools and of undergoing periodical inspections. There is nothing to prevent other subjects being taught. The village schools are inspected at least once in two months by Deputy Inspectors whose salaries range from Rupees 30 to 35. There were ten of them in 1049. The district or taluk schools are inspected once in three months by Inspectors whose salary is Rupees 85, inclusive of a travelling allowance of Rupees 15. The aided schools in the town of Trevandrum are visited every month and supervised by a special Inspector on a salary of Rupees 40 per mensem. The whole department is controlled by a Director, whose salary is Rupees 150.

Vernacular Schools belonging to Missionary Societies.

The educational operations of the various Missionary Societies have always been a very active widely influential agency in the education of the youth of the country, especially of the lower classes. The results of their labors may be summarized thus in a recent year:—

	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils. Boys.	Girls.
The London Mission Society	137	4,040	1,036
The Church Mission Society	110	2,600	560
The Catholic Mission, Vicar Apostolic, Malabar ...	258 (average 25 each)	6,000	1,500 (guessed)
Vicar Apostolic, Quilon	72	2,674	228
Bishopric, Cochin	28	589	197
Syrian Metropolitan See of Malabar	132	20,000	7,000 deducting 2,000 for English schools).

It is under contemplation to introduce a system of grants-in-aid or of payment for results in respect of some of these schools.

Medical Department.

The total monthly cost of the Medical Establishment is Rs. 3,924, and of the Vaccination Establishment Rs. 882, giving a total monthly cost of Rs. 4,086, or Rs. 57,672 per annum. The medical institutions maintained at the capital are the Civil or General Hospital, the Charity Hospital to which is attached a Small-pox Hospital, the Lunatic Asylum, the Lying-in Hospital, and the Jail Hospital. There

are subordinate dispensaries attached to the Rajah's Palace, to the First Prince's Palace, to the public offices, and to the Durbar Physician's residence. The medical institutions at out-stations consist of three at Alleppy, namely, a Civil Hospital, Charity Hospital, and Jail Hospital, and twelve at other places. The medicines and medical stores cost on an average Rupees 30,000 per annum. The total annual expenditure of the department amounts to nearly Rupees 1,08,000.

Revenue Survey.

The Revenue Survey Department is attached to the Dewan's Cutcherry, and is directly under his orders. It was organized in the year 1040. The survey operations are mostly in connection with coffee estates.

Press.

The Sircar Press was organized about forty years back, at the time when the Trevandrum English school came into existence. The scope of its operations was exceedingly limited for a long time, the demand for printing work being confined to the publication of the Trevandrum Almanac and the requirements of the English school and one or two more departments. Recently the department has undergone considerable improvement in strength and efficiency. The stock of printing machinery and types received valuable additions during the years 1040 to 1044. In 1045 a Lithographic Press was supplied with an establishment to work it. At the present time almost every department derives help from the Press, and the general introduction of paper recently effected is calculated to render the need for its assistance still greater.

Unjel or Local Post.

The Unjel, in former days, was maintained for State service only, but about 1036 it was thrown open to the public and the system of levying postage introduced. In 1036 there were 44 stations or Post Offices, and 30 more have been added in subsequent years, making a total of 74 at the present day. The total cost was last year Rupees 21,847, or with contingencies Rupees 21,099. The distance traversed by runners every day is 620 miles. From the Central Post Office at Trevandrum one line runs south to Thovalay, another runs north as far as Pavoor, another to Shencottah by the new road *viâ* Needoovengaud. A branch line runs from Quilon to Shencottah, and another from Krishnapoorum to Thoduvellah; ten other branch lines start from the main ones and proceed into the interior and towards the coast. The average speed attained is between 3 and 4 miles per hour. The total number of private despatches in the year 1049 was 207,796, and was in excess of the number in the preceding year by 11,265. The income yielded from this source was Rupees 11,568. Owing to the substitution of paper for palm leaves, on which latter most of the correspondence of the country used to be carried on, the additional number of covers did not yield a corresponding increase in the receipts, the weight of the letters being considerably reduced. The Unjel carries also the letters,

newspapers and books received into the country through the British Post Offices, of which there are about eight. By the extra charge levied on these it earned in 1049 Rupees 324.

Mint. With the exception of two stamping presses, an assaying furnace, and assay balances and weights, procured from the Madras Mint and from England, there is no machinery in the Travancore Mint, and the operations are carried on in the native style. For some years past the operations have been very limited. At present work is confined for the most part to copper coinage. The British Rupee is current in the State. The local coins are, therefore, only of lower denominations. A fanam is equal to 4 chuckroms (silver coin), and a chuckrom is equal to 16 cash (copper coin). 28½ chuckroms go to the rupee, a chuckrom being nearly 6 grains Troy. The copper coinage yielded Rupees 1,913 in 1048 and Rupees 2,539 in 1049, deducting cost of metal; allowing for charges of establishment, the result was a loss of Rupees 421 in the one year and Rupees 21 in the other.

Elephant Department. Elephants are taken in pits, partly by Government agency and partly by private individuals. In the latter case, the captor receives a reward from the Government of Rupees 150, the animal itself being royal. There are in all about 500 Sircar pits and 500 private pits. Each pit is 8 feet square, rounded off towards the bottom. They are scattered over the valleys frequented by the animal. When an elephant falls into a pit, a report is sent to the Aminadar of the range, who reports to the taluk, and a party with tame elephants is then immediately despatched to capture it. After capture the animal is taken to certain large stables or enclosures and there let loose. It then becomes the business of the Mahoot to tame it. When young, a few months suffice for taming; when old, it takes longer. A full grown elephant at work costs about Rupees 51 per mensem, inclusive of the Mahoot's salary. When out of work and left to graze in the forest Rupees 7 per mensem are allowed.

Financial. The gross receipts from all sources indicated in the Financial Returns for five recent years are given below :—

	—	1045.	1046.	1047.	1048.	1049.
		RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1	Land Revenue	16,66,950	16,43,954	16,59,623	16,81,217	16,93,651
2	Miscellaneous	6,09,182	4,86,687	5,98,907	4,69,338	6,29,807
3	Judicial fees, &c.	1,17,418	1,20,813	1,28,501	1,31,641	1,44,258
4	Customs	3,63,822	3,55,244	4,55,811	4,13,027	3,87,994
5	Arrack and Opium	1,00,605	1,05,494	1,08,658	1,22,447	1,34,996
6	Tobacco	7,75,031	8,10,511	8,89,114	8,62,893	9,09,746
7	Salt	9,57,228	10,03,336	9,83,815	9,91,317	9,88,798
8	Cardamoms & other goods ...	2,06,767	4,09,923	3,78,585	2,73,394	2,24,870
9	Timber	1,08,074	1,20,174	83,701	1,03,728	1,01,710
10	Interest on Government Securities.	1,73,393	1,59,079	47,035	1,98,066	1,06,637
11	Arrears of Revenue collected.	55,537	29,257	38,862	53,403	29,664
	Total ...	51,34,007	52,44,472	52,72,372	53,00,471	53,46,131

The disbursements for the same period were as follow:—

	—	1045.	1046.	1047.	1048.	1049.
		RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1	Devasom	5,59,243	5,52,827	5,54,735	5,44,922	5,73,253
2	Ootperas	3,21,572	3,05,950	2,94,791	3,06,517	3,09,644
3	Palace	5,42,603	4,99,549	5,11,494	5,03,233	5,41,939
4	Huzur Cutcherry and other civil establishments.	5,62,219	5,65,867	5,83,781	5,92,721	5,64,045
5	Judicial Establishments.	1,54,969	1,57,415	1,48,668	1,54,114	1,69,105
6	Police	1,33,242	1,32,956	1,32,609	1,36,455	1,42,430
7	Nair Troops	1,53,631	1,77,597	1,59,364	1,49,620	1,54,905
8	Elephant and Horse establishment.	67,649	65,696	62,715	63,599	66,251
9	Education, Science and Art.	1,14,545	1,23,244	1,09,987	1,15,883	1,14,346
10	Medical	...	...	...	...	1,45,480
11	Pensions	1,21,912	1,21,517	1,26,706	1,34,654	1,35,029
12	Public Works	9,67,801	11,68,728	13,20,967	10,58,617	10,15,913
13	Costs and charges of goods sold, &c.	3,52,902	4,13,969	4,08,021	3,71,170	3,78,008
14	Contingent charges	2,00,608	1,96,593	1,78,188	1,62,886	1,80,972
15	Subsidy	8,10,652	8,10,652	8,10,652	8,10,652	8,10,652
16	Moorajapom	1,94,752	...	...	...	...
17	Tulabarum	1,61,177	...	...	...	...
18	Tirumadampu	20,690	...	...	18,425	...
19	Pulmagarbhum	...	...	90,979	...	...
20	The Rajah's trip to Bombay and Benares.	...	...	...	1,54,592	...
21	Sankara Chariar Swamy's visit.	...	...	...	...	20,130
	Total ...	54,40,167	52,92,560	54,93,657	52,78,060	53,21,292

COCHIN STATE.

History of political relations.

According to tradition the Rajahs of Cochin claim to hold the territory in right of descent from Cherman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as independent ruler. The genealogical table showing the descent of the present ruler of Cochin cannot be traced beyond the last three centuries, and even for this period the information is untrustworthy. From the commencement of the present century the information becomes better defined, and the following names appear in regular succession :—Rama Vurmah died at Trichoor, September 28th, 1805 ; Rama Vurmah died at Velarapully, January 14th, 1809 ; Veera Kerala died at Tripoontorah, August 6th, 1828 ; Rama Vurmah died at Tripoontorah, November 18th, 1837 ; Rama Vurmah died at Irinjalacodah, May 31st, 1842 ; Rama Vurmah died at Trichoor, July 10th, 1851 ; Veera Kerala died at Benares, February 22nd, 1853 ; Revi Vurmah died at Tripoontorah, February 7th, 1864 ; and Rama Vurmah, the present rajah who ascended the musnud, March 28th, 1864. In 1776 Cochin was subjugated by, and became tributary to, Hyder Ali. In 1792 Tippoo ceded the sovereignty to the British, who left the country under the uncontrolled authority

of the Rajah, subject to a tribute of 1,00,000 rupees; this undertaking was concluded with the Rajah in the previous year, when the Company restored to him the districts and forts taken from him by Tippoo. The Cochin State is in subsidiary alliance with the British Government under treaty of 17th October 1809. By this treaty, which was entered into on the suppression of an insurrection raised by Cochin jointly with Travancore against the British power, the Rajah agreed to pay the East India Company, in addition to the usual subsidy of one lakh of rupees, an annual sum equal to the expense of one battalion of Native Infantry, or 1,76,037 Arcot rupees, making an aggregate annual payment of Rupees 2,76,037, paid in six equal instalments. It was further stipulated that, should it become necessary to employ a larger force for the defence of these territories against foreign invasion, the Rajah should contribute towards the expense in proportion to his means. The Rajah engaged to be guided at all times by the advice of the English Government; to hold no correspondence with any foreign State without the knowledge and sanction of the Company; and to admit no Europeans to his service, and permit none to remain in his dominions, without the consent and concurrence of the Company. Power was given to the Company to dismantle or garrison any fortress in His Highness' territory. On the other hand the Company undertook to defend the integrity of the State territory against all enemies. Subsequently the annual subsidy to the British Government was reduced to Rupees 2,40,000, being one-half of the estimated amount of the revenue at that time; and at a still later period the payment was fixed at two lakhs only, which forms the pecuniary obligation of the State at the present day. There is a British Resident for Cochin jointly with Travancore.

Features of the country.

Cochin contains seven districts, namely, Cochin, Cannanore, Mugundapuram, Trichoor, Tallapully, Chittoor, and Cranganore. The total area is 1,361 square miles.

Recent Census.

A census was recently taken of the population of this State. The inhabitants have been enumerated five times during the last 55 years, the figures presenting the total population being respectively 223,203 in 995 M.E.; 288,176 in 1011; 356,802 in 1024; 399,056 in 1032; and 601,114 in 1050. The augmentation in numbers appears to have been great and continuous, though not always uniform, being 29 per cent. for an interval of 16 years between the first and second censuses; 27 per cent. for the second period of 13 years; 11 per cent. for the third period of 8 years; 49 per cent. for the fourth period of 18 years; and 170 per cent. for the whole interval of 55 years, between the earliest and latest enumerations. The highest rate of increase has obtained during the present administration, which has been marked also by the rapid development of the food resources of the country. In the

following table is given the present annual increase in each of the principal countries of Europe, together with the number of years in which the population would be doubled if the rates continued so :—

Countries.	Increase per Annum.	Years.
Russia	1·39	50
England	1·29	54
Prussia	1·13	61½
Spain	0·89	78
Italy	0·70	99
France	0·35	198

The rate and years for Cochin are 1·86 and 39, respectively. The male population of the country has increased during the interval between 995 and 1050 from 109,669 to 302,030, or 175 per cent., and the female from 113,334 to 299,084, or 164 per cent. The subjects of the Cochin Government, excluding those whose domicile of origin is elsewhere as above shown, may be ethnically divided into 530,262 Malayalees, 31,325 Tamulians, and 30,849 other languages. The subjoined table shows the distribution of the Cochinites and foreigners according to the districts in which they reside :—

No.	Districts.	Malayalum.		Tamulian.		Other Races.		Total.		Grand Total.
		Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	
1	Kanayannoor ...	86,245	1,341	1,341	294	4,337	125	91,924	1,760	93,683
2	Cochin	81,813	221	1,088	8	10,697	74	93,598	303	93,901
3	Kodungaloor	18,426	100	594	40	1,218	19	20,238	159	20,397
4	Mugundapuram ...	110,407	422	1,851	111	2,161	22	114,419	555	114,974
5	Trichoor	98,904	217	869	443	944	365	100,717	1,025	101,742
6	Tallapully	103,160	995	3,393	184	2,712	21	109,265	1,200	110,465
7	Chittoor	31,307	1,633	22,189	1,223	8,780	820	62,276	3,676	65,952
	Total ...	530,262	4,929	31,325	2,303	30,849	1,446	592,436	8,678	601,114

Taking the three principal caste divisions of the people the figures stand as follows:—Hindus, 426,922, or 71·02 per cent.; Christians, 140,414, or 23·35 per cent.; Mahomedans, 32,499, or 5·40 per cent. The proportion of Christians is 3 per cent. greater than in the adjoining State of Travancore, 21½ per cent. greater than in the Madras Presidency generally, and nearly four times as great as in Tinnevelly. The bulk of this population are Syrian Christians, though the report does not distinguish the different denominations. They are massed in the neighbourhood of the seacoast back-waters and lagoons, and almost monopolize the boating and fishing industry. Of the Hindus 66·22 per cent. are classed as Malayala Sudras and Eloovars. The Brahmins number 22,342, or 3·6 of the total population, and 5·5 of the Hindu population. The density is 441 to the square mile, a result exceeded only in Tanjore. The luxuriant growth of the cocoa palm on the sea shore and backwaters is the chief support of this

heavy population. Little labor being entailed by this cultivation, abundant opportunity exists for further earnings. Nearly the whole produce of the country consists of special articles for export, the collection of which at the port of Cochin by the endless net-work of canals, affords ample employment to boatmen, imported rice being distributed in the shape of return cargo. The fact that a sufficient fish diet is available to the great bulk of the people at an almost nominal cost is not to be overlooked in drawing conclusions regarding the density of population.

Taxation in Cochin.

The census shows the total revenue for that year as a little over 2 rupees a head, or quarter of a rupee less than in the British territory and in the adjoining State of Travancore. The difference indeed is almost explained by the smaller revenue from salt already referred to. The average incidence of the land-tax is Rupees 1-4-0 a head, or 2 annas less than in British territory. The geographical formation of the country does not favor the Travancore system of indirectly taxing the land by export duties.

GANJAM AGENCY.

Nature of hill tracts.

The Maliah tract at present under the jurisdiction of the Ganjam Agent occupies the western portion of the District of Ganjam covering an area of about 3,500 square miles, or about five-twelfths of the entire district. It is inhabited chiefly by Khonds and Savarahs. The term Maliah or Malwah means high lands, and is the name given by Khonds to the upland regions of Orissa generally. The country is mountainous and covered with dense forests of sal, which however, never attain any great age, as they are periodically cleared by the Khonds and Savarahs for cultivation purposes. Agriculture is practised by the Khonds with a degree of skill and energy which is perhaps nowhere surpassed in India, and the result is a high degree of rural affluence. The Maliah Khonds are extremely rich in every species of agricultural stock. The Khonds inhabit the northern and central portions of the Maliahs in Ganjam and comprise many tribes speaking different dialects and of various degrees of lawlessness. Those on the Kalahundy and Jeypore borders, known as the Kuttiah Khonds, are perhaps the most fierce and warlike. The tribes occupying the hills bordering on Ganjam, with the exception of the Simili Khonds of Bodagadah, are somewhat more civilized; and in the Goomsur Maliahs, where many of them speak Uriya, there is not much perceptible difference between the Khonds of the hills and those living in the jungle villages at the foot of the ghauts. The Savarahs occupy

the Pedda Kimedy, Surangi, and Parla Kimedy Maliahs to the south of the Khond tribes, with whom they have little in common. In agriculture they are on a par with the Khonds. The region occupied by this people extends from the Kimedy Zemindari to the Godavari, or for 200 miles. The principal means of access to the Maliahs from the plains is by the Kalingia Ghaut Road from the foot of the hills at Durgaprasad in the Goomsur Taluk to Kalingia on the summit, a distance of seven miles. It was originally constructed by the Sappers and Miners, and is at present maintained by the Department of Public Works. It is accessible to carts. There are many other rough ghaut tracks connecting the Maliahs with the low country available for foot passengers and cattle. A cart road is under construction from the Parla Kimedy plain country to Gumma in the Parla Kimedy Maliahs.

Government jurisdiction.

In the year 1836 the Zemindari of Goomsur and the Maliahs attached thereto were resumed by Government in consequence of the rebellious conduct of the Zemindar and were placed under the control of the Collector. During the war it came to the notice of the Commissioner that meriah sacrifices were practised in certain portions of the Maliahs, and in consequence a Military Assistant with an armed force was specially entertained with a view to their gradual suppression. It was at the same time considered necessary for the prevention of further disturbances that the administration of criminal and civil justice in the Hill Zemindaries should be removed from the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts and placed under the Collector, and Act XXIV of 1839 was passed giving the Collector, or Agent to the Governor of Fort St. George, the necessary powers. During the time the Maliahs were under the control of the Collector and Agent it was discovered by his Military Assistant that the meriah sacrifices were not confined to the Maliahs of this district alone, but extended to those of the neighbouring district of Vizagapatam as well as to those under the jurisdiction of the Bengal Presidency and Central Provinces, and that female infanticide was also practised in some of them. The Government of India therefore considered it proper to create a separate Agency for the suppression of meriah sacrifices and female infanticide in the Hill Tracts of Orissa in general, and appointed an Agent under Act XXI of 1845, to whom all the Maliahs then under the Collector and Agent were transferred. This arrangement continued up to May 1862, when, the Government having been satisfied that these rites had been completely and successfully put down, the Meriah Agency was done away with, and the Maliahs were retransferred to the Collector and Agent. In 1863 all the Agency tracts situated below the ghauts, with the exception of Goomsur and Suradah, were retransferred to the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts, and in 1866

Goomsur and Surada also were removed from the jurisdiction of the Agent. In 1869 the Chokapad Mutah of the Goomsur Taluk and the petty Chieftainships of Koradah and Ronabah were restored to the Agent. The Maliahs at present under the jurisdiction of the Collector and Agent are the following :—Goomsur, Surada, Chinna Kimedy, Pedda Kimedy, Bodagadah, Surangi, Parla Kimedy, Mutahs of Koradah and Ronabah, Jaradah, Jalantra, Mandasa, Budarasingi, and Kattingiah. Of these the Goomsur Suradah and Chinna Kimedy Maliahs are under the direct management of Government; the two former having been forfeited to Government along with the Zemindari of Goomsur, while the latter was taken by Government in consequence of disturbances, towards the quelling of which the Zemindar, who is a nominal proprietor, was unable to render assistance for want of influence with the Khonds. The remaining Maliahs are held on sanads by their respective Zemindars, who derive more or less revenue therefrom. The Government derive no revenue from the Maliahs under their own management. The population of the Maliahs under the Agency is computed at 185,957 according to the Census of 1871. In these Maliahs the Agent exercises the powers of the Civil and Sessions Judge, though questions of disputed succession to landed estates are decided by Government on the report of the Agent. The Penal and Criminal Procedure Codes are in force. These tracts are Scheduled Districts under Act XIV of 1874.

VIZAGAPATAM AGENCY.

History of the agency.

In 1835 Sir Frederick Adam, Governor of Madras, visited the Circars, and recorded in a Minute his opinion as to the expediency of exempting the Hill Zemindaries from the general regulations. Mr. Russel, Special Commissioner in the Northern Circars, after minute inquiries into the causes of disturbances then lately suppressed, and the policy needful for adoption in order that the recurrence of such outbreaks might be prevented, reported finally on this subject in 1836 and 1837. He observed that a system which was adapted to districts where the authority of Government is paramount could not fail to be inapplicable to mountainous tracts, where, up to that period and after a lapse of more than thirty years, the Government had in effect no police and no power. He proposed, as the course best calculated both to add to the weight and influence of the local authority, and to remove existing causes of irritation on the part of the Hill Zemindars arising from the unbending form of regulation

procedure, that those tributaries should be exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts and placed exclusively under the Collector of the District, in whom should be vested the entire administration of civil and criminal justice, under such rules for his guidance as might be prescribed by orders in Council. This proposal was approved by the Government, and forms the basis of Act XXIV of 1839. It was further enacted that the Collector, as Agent to the Governor, should have the power of making commitments by warrant which is possessed by the Governor in Council by virtue of Regulation II of 1819, subject always to the orders of Government on each case. The present Agency embraces Jeypore, with those portions of the Zemindaries of Madgole, Pachipenta, Kurupain, and Meraing which lie within the hills and the hill mutas of Palcondah, those of Golgondah, and the Hill Zemindari of Kasipur. These tracts are Scheduled Districts in the same way as the Ganjam Maliahs.

PUDUCOTTAH STATE.

Description.

The Puducottah State is surrounded by the British districts of Tanjore, Trichinopoly, and Madura. Its gross revenue is about five lakhs of rupees, of which three lakhs are Inam and Jaghire and two lakhs are payable to the Rajah. The British Government has no treaty with Puducottah, the Rajah of which is exempt from tribute, and has independent Courts of Justice. The Madras Government, however, receives petitions of complaints from his subjects and sends them for the report of the Political Agent, who is considered entitled to advise and remonstrate with the Rajah on all subjects of importance. The area of the State is about 1,046 square miles. The population, which is almost entirely agricultural, was 316,695 according to the census of 1874. The country is generally a flat plain, interspersed with a few small rocky hills, some of which are crowned by old forts. In the south-west hills and jungles are found, but elsewhere it is a well-cultivated tract, and there are 3,000 tanks, some of considerable size. The alienations of land revenue are extensive. Members of the Rajah's family hold 110,000 acres, 95,627 acres are held by temples, and 9,584 acres are held by alms-houses. The Inams held by Brahmins, and on various tenures of service, amount to 100,000 acres. Further particulars will be found below.

History.

The first connexion of the British Government with this chieftain, then usually called Tondiman, was formed at the siege of Trichinopoly

in 1753, when the British army greatly depended on his fidelity and exertions for provisions. Subsequently he was serviceable in the wars with Hyder Ali and in the Poligar war, the latter being the name given to the operations against the usurpers of the large Zemindari of Shivaganga in the Madura District after the cession of the Carnatic. In 1803 he solicited as a reward for his services the favorable consideration of his claim to the fort and district of Kilanelli, situated in the southern part of Tanjore; this claim was founded on a grant by Pratap Singh, Rajah of Tanjore, and on engagements which were afterwards entered into by Colonel Braithwaite, General Coote, and Lord Macartney. The Government of Madras ceded the fort and district of Kilanelli, and the cession was afterwards confirmed by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, but with the condition that the district should not be alienated, and that it should revert to the British Government upon proof being given at any time that the inhabitants labored under oppressive government. Kilanelli yields a revenue of about Rupees 30,000 a year. The grant was also made subject to the yearly tribute of an elephant; this tribute however was not insisted upon, and in 1836 it was formally excused. The Rajah Vijaya Raghunath Tondiman died on the 1st February 1807, leaving two sons, the elder of whom, aged eleven, succeeded. During the minority of the young chief the Resident at Tanjore exercised a strict superintendence over the affairs of the State, and procured various reforms of system in the revenue, police, and judicial departments. As the Rajah increased in age, the interference with his affairs was gradually lessened, and about the year 1817 he was placed in charge of the whole administration. Rajah Vijaya Raghunath Rai Tondiman Bahadoor died in 1825 and was succeeded by his younger brother Rajah Raghunath Tondiman, who died on the 13th July 1839. He left two sons, Rajah Ramachandra Tondiman Bahadoor, aged nine years, and Tirumalai Tondiman, aged eight years. The former succeeded eventually to the chieftainship. Until 1841 the administration was conducted by the widow assisted by two ministers, but in that year, in consequence of representations of injustice by relations of the Rajah, the Resident at Tanjore was directed to make Puducottah his occasional residence, and to take up the immediate superintendence and control of the business of the country, which was however to continue to be conducted by the ministers of the Rajah. The Resident, on the receipt of these orders, laid down rules for the guidance of the ministers, which prohibited expenditure beyond certain limits, and forbade the ministers to make grants of land, to assign produce, to create offices, or to increase or decrease emoluments, without his sanction; the rules prescribed also the mode in which public business

was to be carried on. In the same year the Residency at Tanjore was abolished, and the charge of Puducottah was entrusted to the Collector of Madura. The administration of the State was prosperously conducted under the superintendence of this officer during the remainder of the minority; all debts were paid off, and a surplus invested in the funds of the British Government. In 1854, owing to disturbances in the country, originating in part in the irregular conduct of public business by the present Rajah, who had then recently come of age, the Governor in Council decided upon the system of administration now in force. That system is 1*st*, that the acts of the Rajah, through the Minister or Sirkele, shall be subject to the revision of the Political Agent with regard to all appointments and dismissals of public officers; 2*nd*, that, subject to the Political Agent's supervision, the Sirkele shall manage the finances, the Rajah being restricted to his privy purse allowances; 3*rd*, that there shall be a full yearly report of affairs; 4*th*, that the Political Agent shall expel from the territory all disorderly persons and evil counsellors. In 1865 the Political Agency was transferred from Madura to Tanjore, and in 1874 from Tanjore again to Trichinopoly.

There have been no regular treaties between the British Government and the Rajah, but in 1803 the fort and district of Kilanelli were granted to him by Lord Clive, the Governor of Madras, as mentioned above, and in 1862 a sanad was granted to him by the Viceroy Lord Canning, assuring him that the British Government would recognize the right of adoption, and that nothing should disturb the arrangement so long as the House should remain faithful and loyal to the Crown. In 1877 the Rajah adopted his third grandson by the only daughter of the junior Ranee Sahiba, and this adoption has been recognized and confirmed. Treaties.

BANGANAPALLI STATE.

The Jaghire of Banganapalli situated in the Kurnool District was originally granted to Mahomed Beg Khan, eldest son of the Grand Vizier of Aurangzeb. It was afterwards confirmed by successive grants from Mysore and Hyderabad; and at the treaty of 1800 was conferred on Muzafar Mulk and his heirs in perpetuity. In 1825, in consequence of the disorders which prevailed in the jaghire, its management was temporarily assumed by the Company, and the Collector of Cuddapah was directed to examine the accounts of the chief and settle the claims of his creditors, to whom three-fourths of History.

the net revenue was allotted, and the dividends regularly paid by the officer placed in charge of the jaghire. In 1848, the accounts being closed, the jaghire was restored to Hussain Ali Khan, the eldest surviving heir. Hussain Ali Khan died before a sanad recognizing him could be issued. He was succeeded by his nephew Ghulam Ali Khan, the late chief, to whom in 1849 a sanad was granted renewing to him and to his heirs their former rights and privileges, with administration of civil and criminal justice except in cases involving capital punishment, and stipulating that no grant should be made without a written document distinctly specifying that each alienation should hold good during such period only as the jaghire should remain in the enjoyment of the grantor. All frontier duties were abolished. In 1862 a sanad was granted to Ghulam Ali Khan guaranteeing that the British Government would permit and confirm any succession to his State which might be legitimate according to Mahomedan law. In October 1868 Ghulam Ali Khan, C.S.I, died, and his nephew and son-in-law, Fatte Ali Khan Bahadoor, the present ruler, was recognized as his successor. Under the sanad granted to Ghulam Ali Khan and renewed in the name of the present chief, the jaghire is confirmed as an independent State free of peishcush and pecuniary demand, the chief being bound at all times to maintain faith and allegiance to the paramount Power. The civil jurisdiction of the chief is unrestricted; but in the administration of criminal justice he is debarred from mutilating criminals, and capital sentences must be sanctioned by the Madras Government before being carried out. The chief has recently been granted in perpetuity the title of Nawab.

Statistics.

The area of the jaghire is estimated at 206½ square miles, or 132,191 acres. Of this 54,171 acres are held on full assessment, and 38,578 acres are held on favorable tenure. There are only 29 acres of fully assessed land unoccupied. The remaining area, amounting to acres 29,413, is unassessed, and comprises hills, streams, roads, village sites, &c. The population of the jaghire was returned at 45,065 in the census of 1871. The land revenue amounts to Rupees 2,24,841, and the miscellaneous revenue to Rupees 9,798, but considerably more than half the land revenue is assigned as maintenance to members of the family. The jaghire contains some of the finest gardens in this part of the country, the mangoes and oranges of Banganapalli being celebrated. The Collector of Kurnool acts as Agent to the Madras Government; he does not, however, forward an administration report of the jaghire.

SUNDOOR STATE.

General description.

The State of Sundoor is situated nearly in the centre of the Bellary District. The area is roughly estimated at 140 square miles, of which more than a third is hill territory; it is also surrounded by a cordon of hills which completely isolate it from the neighbouring country. The administration is in the hands of a European Agent, who is the chief executive officer, and whose decisions on both the revenue and judicial sides are final. The law in force is substantially that of British India. The population of the State, not including the hill sanitarium of Ramandroog, is according to the recent census somewhat over 14,000, showing an increase on the census of 1865 of more than 1,000 persons. The average revenue from all sources somewhat exceeds Rupees 45,000. Of this sum about Rupees 24,000 is realized from land, about Rupees 18,300 from contracts of different kinds, and the rest from miscellaneous sources. The land revenue includes grants of land to dependents and service lands, and these are generally estimated at the highest figure; the contracts also form a somewhat precarious and fluctuating source of income. The following Inams are enjoyed:—Bramadaya, Rupees 4,571; Komaraswami Pagoda, Rupees 2,945; other temples, Rupees 2,332; Fakirs and others, Rupees 1,298; and sundry small jaghires, Rupees 1,360. In all, lands to the value of Rupees 12,506 per annum are alienated. Since November 1863 nearly a lakh of rupees has been paid towards the liquidation of debts; but, it is to be regretted, with less practical result than might reasonably be anticipated. The system of paying with one hand, and contracting fresh obligations with the other, has not yet been entirely abolished. Education is in a backward state, roads are still urgently required, and public buildings are wanted. The incubus of debt is a considerable check to efforts in these directions.

History.

The present chief of Sundoor is Siva Shan Mukha Row. The founder of the family was Malloji Row Ghorepura, an officer in the army of the Bijapur State, whose son Biroji entered the service of the Rajah of Sattara. The Sundoor State had been previously held by a Beder Poligar, but Biroji's son Siddoji took Sundoor from the Beders, and his conquest was confirmed to him and his heirs by Sambhaji, the successor of Sivaji. Siddoji died in 1715, and was succeeded in Sundoor by his second son Gopal Row, whose fate is involved in obscurity. All that is known of the history of that time is that Sundoor was taken by Hyder Ali some time after his capture of Gooty in 1779; that he and his son Tippoo built the fort; and that Gopal Row's son, Siva Row, was killed in action in 1785 in a vain attempt

to recover his patrimony. In 1790 Siva Row's brother, Vencata Row, acting on behalf of his nephew Siddoji, drove out Tippoo's garrison, but did not attempt to occupy Sundoor till the fall of Seringapatam. The Peshwa then claimed the State as his own, and presented it to Yeswant Row Ghorepura, a distinguished officer of Scindia's army, who belonged to the same family. Yeswant Row did not take possession, and the widow of Siddoji, who died in 1796, adopted Siva Row, a son of Kandi Row the younger brother of Yeswant Row. The Peshwa made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sundoor in 1815; at his request in 1817 the British Government, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Bassein, sent a force under Sir Thomas Munro to reduce it, and in October of that year the fort and government were surrendered. Siva Row was compensated, on Sir Thomas Munro's recommendation, with a jaghire of Rupees 10,000. In 1818, after the failure of the Peshwa's government, Siva Row was restored to his State, and in 1826 received a sanad from Government confirming the lands of Sundoor to him and his heirs for ever free of peishcush and pecuniary demands. Siva Row was succeeded in 1840 by a nephew named Venkat Row, who died in 1861. His eldest son, the present chief, being then a minor, was not invested till 1863, when the sanad was renewed. The present chief has the entire management of the revenue and police of his State, and the duty of administering civil justice. He is bound at all times to maintain allegiance to the British Government, and to assist them against foreign or domestic foes, maintaining a watch over public peace and delivering up offenders who escape into his territory from British India. In the administration of criminal justice he is required to refer all cases calling for capital punishment for the orders of the Madras Government. He is held responsible to the British Government for the satisfactory administration of his State, and in case of misgovernment the Governor in Council has the power to take such measures as appear proper for the establishment of order and security. The title of Rajah has lately been granted in perpetuity to the chief. The Collector of Bellary acts as Government Agent, but does not submit an administration report.

Sanitarium of Ramandroog.

Sundoor contains a very important hill sanitarium for Europeans in the plateau of Ramandroog. Permission was obtained from the Rajah in 1846 to establish a sanitarium there, and it has since been utilized chiefly as a convalescent depôt for the troops serving in the Ceded Districts. Ramandroog is distant from Bellary 38 miles, and from Secunderabad 270 miles. The station is built on an elevated plateau 3,150 feet above the sea-level, 1,825 above Bellary, and 1,200 feet above the surrounding plains. The greatest extent of the plateau is from north to south one and a half miles, and it varies in breadth from half to three-quarters of a mile. The general aspect of the

surface is undulating, the eastern ridge of the hill being more than 100 feet higher than the western ; the ground gradually slopes down from the former to the latter, where in many places the descent to the western plains is very precipitous. Owing to this conformation no rain-water lodges on the hill. The soil on the plateau formed by the disintegrated rock is scanty, but sufficient in some spots on the west and south sides of the hill to admit of a certain amount of cultivation ; on the eastern side the rock is generally bare. During the months of January, February, and March the air is cool, dry, and bracing, being generally 12° cooler than at Bellary during the same period. April and May may be called the hot months, when the mean of the thermometer is about 80°. The mornings and evenings during these months are however cool and pleasant, and towards sunset a fresh breeze sets in from the west. Early in April and during May partial showers fall ; the air, except in the early mornings and evenings, is close and sultry, and the sky becomes cloudy. Towards the end of May banks of clouds are seen forming in the west, and occasional heavy showers of rain fall. This is soon followed by violent storms bringing in the south-west monsoon. Rain continues with occasional breaks till the middle of October, after which, to the end of the year, the rainfall is inconsiderable. During the south-west monsoon fogs cover the hills from sunset till 9 or 10 o'clock next morning, the thermometer in the early morning falling to 62° Fahrenheit. The damp chilly state of the atmosphere at this period necessitates the use of fires in barracks and houses. The north-east monsoon sets in about the middle of October, and a cold wind prevails from the north-east quarter till the end of February, when it gradually veers round to the south-west. During the south-west monsoon the sides of the hill and the ravines and nullahs at the base contain a large amount of decaying vegetable matter. After the rains are over the surface of the country rapidly dries up and the atmosphere becomes full of impurities ; this probably accounts for the not unfrequent occurrence of malarious fever during the period of the year just mentioned. The rainfall is greater than in the plains, but seems to have fallen off in the last few years —a fact which is probably due to the unlimited destruction of trees and shrubs during the minority of the present Rajah. The climate of Ramandroog is suitable for cases of general debility, unattended by organic disease. Hepatic, cardiac, rheumatic, pulmonic and bowel affections appear to be aggravated by the climate, especially during the rains. All cases of glandular affections derive great benefit, and children of a scrofulous habit of body thrive remarkably. The depôt can accommodate 60 single men and 10 families. There are three good roads up to the Droog, one by Yettinhatti and Bavihalli, which is the one used by travellers from Bellary ; one from Hospet ; and

the third, the steepest of all, from Narayandeverkerra. There are about fifteen houses on the Droog belonging to Bellary residents. Two carriage roads run along the whole platform, and many good bridle roads have been cut along the sides of the hills to the north and south.

CONSULS, &c.

Consuls and Consular Agents.

At Madras the following Governments are represented by Consuls: America, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden and Norway. At Cocanada, America, Austria, Bremen, France, and Germany are represented. At Tellicherry, France has a Consul. At Cochin, both France and Germany have Consuls. At Bimlipatam, Germany has a Consul. The French Consuls act under the authority of the Consul-General of France at Calcutta. The Madras Government have Consular Agents at the French settlements of Pondicherry and Karikal.

POLITICAL PENSIONS.

Carnatic Pensions—History of Carnatic Family.

The Musalmans first assumed the actual government of the Carnatic at the commencement of the last century, when the Emperor Aurengzebe, after conquering and annexing the independent Musalman kingdoms of the Dakhan, appointed Kasim Khan Nawab of the Carnatic. The Nawabs were subsequently appointed by the Viceroy of the Dakhan, subject to the confirmation of the Emperor at Delhi. Anwar ud Din Khan, the first Nawab of the present Arcot family, was the last Nawab appointed directly by the Viceroy, in the year 1744. In the general dissolution of the Mogul empire, numerous claimants to the dignities of the viceroys and nawabs started up; and Anwar ud Din Khan was killed in endeavouring to suppress a rebellion fomented by the French. The English espoused the cause of his son Muhammad Ali Khan, who afterwards assumed the title of Walajah, and by their aid he succeeded his father as Nawab in 1749. In 1795 he died and was succeeded by his son Umdat-ul-Umrah. The English had long been the virtual masters of the country, and the disadvantages of the double government being evident, they resolved to end it; and on the death of Umdat-ul-Umrah in 1801 the civil administration of the country was assumed with the collection of the revenues.

The Nawab was permitted to retain his state and title with a pension of one-fifth of the revenues: but the heir to the dignity, Ali Husain, refusing to sign the treaty relinquishing his rights, he was set aside, and his cousin, the son of Amir ul Umara, Nawab Muhammad Ali Khan, Walajah's second son, was raised to the titular dignity under the style of Nawab Azim ud Daula; he on his part engaging to comply with all the demands of the English Government. Azim ud Daula had two sons, Azam Jah and Azim Jah. He died in 1819 and was succeeded as titular Nawab by Azam Jah, who, dying in 1825, was succeeded by his son Ghulam Muhammad Ghous Khan. On the death of the latter in 1855 the title and dignity of Nawab was abolished and the allowance of one-fifth of the revenues resumed. Azim Jah, the uncle of the last Nawab, long claimed, as the legal heir, the right to succeed to the musnad; and in 1867 the Government compromised his claim by creating him hereditary Prince of Arcot, with a perpetual stipend and other privileges and immunities. He died in 1874 and was succeeded as Prince of Arcot by his eldest son Zahir-ud-Daula Bahadur.

—Carnatic Stipends of 1801.

The assumption of the internal administration of the Carnatic by the British Government in 1801, and the change in the succession, led to the grant of stipends to the different members of the families of the Nawabs Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah and Umdat-ul-Umrah, and to some of their officers and dependents. The total annual amount of these stipends at first granted was seven lakhs. Many additional grants to various claimants, distant relatives, connexions, or servants and dependents of these Nawabs were made subsequently, the last grant on this account being made in the year 1840. The aggregate amount of these subsequent grants was three lakhs of rupees per annum. The amount now paid on account of these stipends to the descendants of the original grantees has been diminished by lapses to little more than one lakh per annum. The continuation of Carnatic stipends of 1801 to the heirs of the stipendiaries is made entirely at the discretion of the Governor in Council, and is regulated by precedent and by the rulings of the Court of Directors. Some of the stipends latterly granted were given in lieu of jaghires or land assignments formerly given by the Nawabs but now resumed by the British; in these cases the stipendiaries retain the name of jaghiredars. Others of the stipendiaries are called yeomiahdars, as their stipends are the equivalents of yeomiahs or daily allowances made to them by the Nawabs. In all matters relating to their stipends these persons come under the same rules as the other stipendiaries of 1801.

—Carnatic Stipends of 1855.

On the death of Nawab Ghulam Muhammad Ghous Khan in 1855, and the consequent resumption of the fifth of the revenues heretofore allowed to the titular Nawabs, the Government granted stipends to all

members of his immediate family and to all his chief officers, servants, and dependents. The total amount thus granted was upwards of five lakhs per annum, and the number of persons stipended was nearly five thousand, of whom less than one thousand now remain; the rest have been transferred to other places, have died or have commuted their stipends. The continuations of the stipends of members of the immediate family are made, under rules laid down by the Government of India, for two or three lives only; the stipends of all others are life grants, and cease absolutely with the deaths of the holders. In the latter case the local Government has discretionary power to continue a moiety of the stipends to widows. The total amount of the Carnatic stipends of 1855 now aggregates a little less than three lakhs thirty-one thousand per annum.

—Prince of Arcot Family Stipend.

The family of the late Prince Azim Jah of Arcot enjoy a perpetual stipend of a lakh and a half of rupees per annum, of which one lakh is divided among the members of the family, and the remaining 50,000 rupees is set apart as an appanage of the title in addition to the personal share of its holder.

—Carnatic Agency, &c.

The whole of these stipendiaries are mustered and paid by an officer called the Government Agent and Paymaster of Carnatic Stipends. It is the duty of this officer to report lapses, and to submit for the consideration of Government distribution rolls of those who claim continuations from the lapsed stipends. A Receiver of Carnatic Property was appointed under Act XXX of 1858 to administer to the estate of the late Nawab of the Carnatic. He was also to pay persons claiming to be creditors of the late Nawabs, under the orders of the Supreme Court, with interest not exceeding six per cent. per annum. For the performance of these duties the Receiver was to receive a commission not exceeding 5 per cent. upon the value of the property collected by and distributed under the Act; by Act XXI of 1868 his duties were somewhat extended. From 1858 to 1875 the Receiver realized Rupees 20,29,700, and disbursed, under the orders of the Supreme and High Courts, Rupees 33,37,619. The subsequent transactions have been limited, and the Receiver's functions may, in point of fact, be said now to have ceased.

Other political pensions.

Other political pensions have arisen under various circumstances, as detailed in the following paragraphs. These are all paid by the revenue authorities of the districts in which the pensioners are permitted to reside.

—Kurnool pensioners.

On the assumption of the Kurnool territory by the British Government in 1800 pensions were granted to the Nawab's personal family and such of his relatives and dependents as were in receipt of allowances from him and held jaghires resumeable at his pleasure.

The pensions so granted were all declared by the Government of India to be life-grants and amounted to Rupees 2,22,651-4-0 per annum. By the death of most of the recipients, and consequent lapse of their pensions to Government, the total amount of these pensions was gradually reduced till, on the 1st April 1875, it stood at Rupees 79,159-10-0, which was still further reduced to Rupees 75,123-10-0 drawn by 127 persons on the 1st April 1876. Of the last amount Rupees 1,860 were transferred to Hyderabad in the course of the year.

—Two-Lakh Fund pensioners.

The "Two-Lakh Fund" was a sum of two lakhs of Star Pagodas set apart by treaty for the maintenance of the families and connexions of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sultan, and their dependents. There are at present 70 pensioners under this head, drawing an aggregate pension of Rupees 9,624-10-0 annually, with a clothing allowance of Rupees 1,255 per annum, the latter sum being enjoyed only by certain of the pensioners. The pensioners principally consist of the descendants of the officers of Hyder's and Tippoo's courts, whose present pensions have devolved to them by gradual lapses. Some are the relatives, and a few others the dependents of the widows of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sultan. Under this head is also paid a sum of Rupees 1,251 per annum, intended for the ceremonies over Padshaw Begum's tomb, the principal wife of Tippoo Sultan, and for other religious ceremonies known as the Ashar Fateahs.

—Mysore pensioners.

The Mysore pensioners also are the descendants of the officers of Tippoo's court. They are so called in contradistinction to the Two-Lakh Fund pensioners, as their pensions are chargeable to the Mysore State. There are at present seventeen pensioners under this head, drawing an aggregate pension of Rupees 7,184-11-0 annually. A sum of Rupees 276 per annum is allowed for the performance of fateah ceremonies over the tomb of Goolam Ally Sadoor, one of the principal officers of Tippoo's court.

—Goomsur pensioners.

The late Goomsur pensioners were the members of the family of the late Zemindar of Goomsur, who had been implicated in disturbances raised in Goomsur and elsewhere in the Ganjam District. They were originally brought to Vellore in 1837, when they consisted of some twenty persons; the number has now been reduced by casualties, &c. to only one member, a concubine of the ex-zemindar.

—Palcondah pensioners.

The Palcondah pensioners, of whom there are five in number, are the members of the family of the late Zemindar of Palcondah. They were banished to the North Arcot District in 1834, and placed under restraint there to prevent their entering into intrigues with the disaffected adherents of the family in Palcondah and elsewhere in the Vizagapatam District. They consist of the son, two daughters and two widows of the Zemindar, and are in receipt of pensions amounting

in the aggregate to Rupees 2,928 per annum. They reside in the mahals in the Fort at Vellore.

—Cuttack pensioners.

The Cuttack pensioners are the members of the family of Rajah Pillay *alias* Lutchmee Narrain Bunge, a turbulent character who created disturbances in the Ganjam District. He was sent to Vellore in 1856 by desire of the Bengal Government, accompanied by his wife, a son, and two male relatives, and died in 1857. The present members of his family consist of his widow, his son, and his uncle. They are in receipt of a pension of Rupees 25 per mensem, or 300 Rupees per annum. They reside in a mahal in the Fort at Vellore, and are under surveillance.

—Madhiarjune Pensions.

The Madhiarjune pensioners are the descendants and dependents of Pritapsing Gee, son of the late Ameer Sing, Rajah of Tanjore, who was dethroned by the British Government in favor of the late Sharfoji, Rajah of Tanjore, and whose seat of residence was transferred to Madhiarjune, seven miles from Combaconum. The chief of these is Yaikoji, the grandson of Ameer Sing, to whom no pension was assigned till the beginning of 1873, when, on the recommendation of the Madras Government, a monthly stipend of Rupees 1,000 was sanctioned for life only. The pensions to the other members of the Madhiarjune family were sanctioned by the Government of India in 1849. These pensions are administered in the Tanjore District.

—Tanjore Raj Pensions.

Subsequent to the death of the late Rajah of Tanjore in 1875 and the annexation of the Raj to the British Dominions, Mr. H. Forbes and after him the Hon. H. D. Phillips were appointed Commissioners to settle its affairs and assign pensions to the several members of the late Rajah's family and dependents. The pensions now drawn were sanctioned by Government in 1859. Among the Tanjore Raj pensioners the principal personages now living are—

			Monthly Pension.
			RS.
1.	Her Highness	M. Kamakshiamba Bayi Sahib	1,000
2.	Do.	M. Aparupamba Bayia Sahib	800
3.	Do.	M. Anasamba Bayi Sahib	800
4.	Do.	M. Chinamba Bayi Sahib	800
5.	Do.	M. Gauramba Bayi Sahib	800
6.	Do.	M. Jayantamba Bayi Sahib	800
7.	Do.	M. Jijayamba Bayi Sahib	800
8.	Do.	M. Ramakumaramba Bayi Sahib	800
9.	Do.	M. Sayamba Bayi Sahib	800
10.	Do.	M. Dipamba Bayi Sahib	800
11.	Do.	M. Wumamba Bayi Sahib	800
12.	Do.	M. Yeswantamba Bayi Sahib	800
13.	Do.	S. C. Vijaiamohana Mukta Bayi Ammani Rajah Sahib, Princess of Tanjore and the daughter of the late Rajah	3,000
14.	Sakwar Bayi Ammani Raje Sahib, eldest sister of the late Rajah ...		281
15.	Brahanayaghi Bayi, niece of the late Rajah		121

	Monthly Pension.
	RS.
16. V. Ry. Sakaram Row Hambiroyi Mahite Sahib, son-in-law of the late Rajah	683
17. V. Ry. Pretapa Rudramanai Row Ingle, nephew of the late Rajah ...	260
18. Sakawara Bayi, descendant of Tookoji, a former Rajah of Tanjore ...	236
19. The late Rajah's Seraglio called Mangalavilas, which at present consists of thirty-four ladies drawing a pension of from ...	70 to 150
Sharfoji Rajah's Seraglio called Kalianamahal, which at present consists of eight ladies, each	79
Yaganatha Avarai, grandson of late Ladu Bayi, who was the chief of the Kalianamahal ladies	445

There are besides these however a number of other relations of the Rajah and his servants and dependents in the several departments called "Daulah Pamloke," "Hazur Pamloke," "Lusker Padak," &c. Among them the highest pension drawn amounts to Rupees 150 and the lowest to Annas 12. In the case of the first fifteen pensioners in the list given above and that of the natural sons and daughters of the late Rajah the pensions are inheritable for two generations. In the case of the rest the pensions will cease with their lives.

Kandian pensioners are the descendants of two families which successively occupied the throne of Ceylon. They were in the early part of this century transferred to the Madras Presidency as a measure of State policy, and have since been maintained in the Tanjore District at the expense of the Ceylon Government. There are at present 25 pensioners. The highest pension drawn by one of them, the third ex-Queen of Vikra Simmala Rajah, is Rupees 125, and the lowest is Rupees 2-8-0 a-month. Several of these pensioners reside also in the Fort, Vellore. —Kandian pensioners.

NON-POLITICAL PENSIONS.

The following is a list of civil pensions other than political pensions classified for purposes of account. It will be seen that it includes both non-official and official pensions. In the Accountant-General's Office all these pensions are grouped under two major heads "Allowances and Assignments" and "Superannuation and Retired Allowances." Nature of civil pensions.

- Compensation ...
  - Compensation in lieu of lands and privileges resumed.
  - Do. to private persons.
  - Do. to pagodas and mosques.
  - Salt and toddy compensations.
  - Yeomiahdars.
- Miscellaneous, *i.e.*, other pensions and charitable allowances chargeable on revenue.
- Superannuation, Revenue.
  - Revenue.
  - Abkári.
  - Customs and Salt, &c.

Superannuation, Civil. { Law and Justice. / Public Department. / Post Office.

Do. Marine.

Superannuation, Public Works Department.

Compassionate Allowances. { Pensioners of Native Pension Fund. / Lungerkhana. / Charitable Allowances of General Nature.

Gratuities.

The titles of the non-official pensions indicate generally the mode in which they have arisen. Compensation money paid to mosques and pagodas is here specified, but will be mentioned again under the section on Public Endowments. The alienation of pensionary allowances by persons holding them is prohibited; on the other hand Collectors are authorized to see that families which are entitled to a share or to maintenance obtain their dues, and, if necessary, to make a proper partition themselves. Whether a non-official pension is hereditary or not depends on the circumstances under which it was originally granted. In most cases of hereditary pensions, the hereditary line is not allowed to be continued by adopted children, but even this is permitted in cases where the pension took its rise in compensation for land charitably granted and then resumed. Pensions which are not hereditary are often gradually reduced on each occasion of a succession. There are certain rules for the commutation of non-official pensionary allowances into a lump sum fixed at so many years' purchase according to age or circumstances, of which pensioners frequently avail themselves; the Government exercise their discretion as to disallowing commutation when the object appears to be an improvident one. The adjudication of claims to these pensions rests entirely with Government in the Pension Department. Non-official pensioners, unless specially exempted, are required to appear periodically before the Revenue authorities of the districts in which they are permitted to reside, for muster and inspection. Payment is made to pensioners at stated intervals by the same officers. The duty of reporting casualties among pensioners is imposed by Government on various officials, and rewards are offered for information as to casualties which have not been brought to the notice of these officials within three months after their occurrence. Official civil pensions are regulated entirely by the Civil Pension Code recently issued by the Financial Department of the Government of India; the Code contains clear instructions regarding the points mentioned above and several others. Certain minor Police pensions are administered under special rules in the Police Department. Covenanted Civil Servants, Judges of the High Court, and Chaplains are specially provided for in the Civil Pension Code.

Military pensions may be classified into European and Native. European pensions are—(1), Full, half, and short service pensions; (2), Invalid establishments; (3), Medical Retiring Funds; (4), Special allowances and pensions; and (5), Widows' and children's allowances. Under the first of these heads come pensions to officers of short service under the fund formerly called "Lord Clive's Fund," as well as full and half pay pensions to officers of the Indian Army and Staff Corps and Medical Department. The second head includes invalid pension to officers disqualified for active duties, but still equal to discharge of garrison duties, as well as to officers disqualified for both. Under the third class are included special annuities granted to a limited number of medical officers according to seniority. The fourth class comprises colonels' allowances, good service pensions for distinguished and meritorious services, and wound pensions and gratuities. The fifth class includes pensions to widows and children under "Lord Clive's Fund," under the old Madras Military Fund, and under the new Indian Service Family Pension Fund of 1875; also to widows and children under the charity branch of the old Madras Medical Fund. Native pensions are of three kinds—(1), Invalid pensions; (2), Wound pensions; (3), Family pensions. Pensions under the first of these classes are payable to Native officers and soldiers of over 15 years' service if declared unfit for further service, and of over 32 years' service irrespective of fitness or unfitness. The second class includes wound pensions and gratuities to Native officers, non-commissioned officers and rank and file according to scale. The third class includes pensions to the nominated heirs of soldiers killed in action or dying on foreign service. Military pensioners are paid monthly by the civil authorities of the districts in which they are allowed to reside: they are mustered once a year by Revenue Divisional Officers for the purposes of identification.

Nature of military pensions.

PUBLIC ENDOWMENTS.

Since the year 1817 the Government have assumed the more or less direct control of all endowments in land or money made by the British or previous Governments, or by private persons, for the support of religious or charitable institutions, or for public buildings, such as bridges, choultries, &c. By Regulation VII of 1817 the Board of Revenue was appointed to control all these endowments, subject to the general supervision of Government. So far as endowments for religious purposes were concerned this control was transferred by Act XX of 1863 from the Board to District Committees appointed by

Nature of the endowments.

Government. These have proved a failure, and the mismanagement and malversation of public funds have been so great that a revision of the law is again under contemplation. The supervision of endowed charitable institutions still rests with the Board. In most cases the institutions are allowed by the Board to remain under the immediate management of private individuals appointed as trustees by the founders, and the Board do not interfere so long as the object of the grant is duly fulfilled; where there has been neglect or irregularity on the part of the trustees the institutions have been placed under the management of Collectors acting as agents to the Board. Chuttrums constructed and endowed by Government are managed similarly by Collectors. The policy has latterly been to transfer all such charitable institutions as have been directly managed by Collectors, to Local Fund Boards, and it is under contemplation to place these Boards in charge also of the privately managed institutions; if this is done they will virtually take the place of the Board under Regulation VII of 1817. The British Government in some cases keep up the endowments of pagodas and mosques, the obligation to do so having been handed on to them by previous Governments. In deference to certain objections efforts have from time to time been made to convert all ready-money payments of this nature into assignments of land revenue. The arrangement has however been only very partially carried out owing to the general reluctance of landholders to have their revenues so assigned. It has now been settled that money allowances shall continue to be paid, but not from the Government Treasury. The payments are to be made in future direct to the trustees by the villagers concerned. They will do this out of the revenues due by them to Government by the system of what is called Beriz deductions, the Government taking so much off the demand. The actual paymaster is the village monegar, who pays for the villagers. The annual value of the land revenue assigned for religious and charitable institutions is about 29 lakhs of rupees, and the ready-money payments made by Government for the same institutions amount to about five lakhs; total 34 lakhs of rupees.

ESCHEATS, &c.

Escheats.

On a person dying intestate and without legal heirs his real property escheats to Government. Section 6, Regulation 7 of 1817, provides that such property shall be sold on the public account or otherwise disposed of at the pleasure of Government. Escheats of valuable

property often occur in Malabar; in other districts the instances are rare. Buildings are generally sold; ordinary assessed land is sometimes sold and sometimes given to occupiers on condition of merely paying the assessment; Inam land is resumed and fully assessed. In many cases the property is assigned by Government to persons having a natural though not a legal claim. The Board of Revenue are charged with the duty of bringing cases of escheat to the notice of Government; when the property is valued at not more than Rupees 50 they are authorized by Government to dispose of the case themselves.

Lapses of personal property.

When intestates leave personal property to which no proper claim is made, the ownership vests in Government. Under clause 7, Section 16, Regulation III of 1802, the Zillah Judges are to take charge of such property pending the orders of Government. In practice, when the value is small, the Collector takes charge and disposes of the property at his discretion.

PETITIONS.

The petition system,

The petition system, under which a person aggrieved with the action of any Government official appeals to the next higher authority by means of a petition and receives back a reply endorsed on his petition, either refusing or promising redress, assumes an unusual importance in this Presidency owing to the number of small holdings of land under Ryotwari, and the consequent multiplication of details in administering the land revenue. Most of the petitions presented to Government officials relate to land revenue. An aggrieved person may appeal in succession to the officers representing each grade in the department concerned, and may finally address in turn the local Government, the Government of India, and the Secretary of State. The three last named alone have prescribed certain rules checking the indiscriminate presentation of petitions; in all other cases there is no check beyond the discretion of the officer receiving them. In a few cases the quasi-judicial Regulations provide for appeals and impose limits on their presentation. In a recent year the Board of Revenue received 3,330 petitions; called for reports, that is to say, took evidence, in 230 cases; gave redress in 15 cases without calling for evidence; and gave redress in 43 cases after calling for evidence. In the same year the corresponding figures for petitions dealt with by Government, in all departments other than the Military and Public Works, were 2,443, 150, 53, and 49 respectively.

SECTION II.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAND.

GOVERNMENT AND ALIENATED LANDS.

(*a*).—Historical Sketch.

Movement of races.

The early movement of races in Southern India seems to show an indigenous and mostly pastoral population, superseded by an invasion from the north of one or more immigrations of Hindu agriculturalists, and these again superseded by a further invasion from the north of a more military class of the same general race. The aborigines of the south remain still in a distinct form in the hill tribes, but these may very possibly represent only the most degraded form of the early civilization. The aborigines were Mongolian by race, Dravidian in speech, demonolators by religion, and in their occupations chiefly pastoral. The first invaders were cultivating Brahmins and herdsmen of the Aryan stock, and an admixture of these with different tribes of the aborigines gave the present southern nations. The cause of the first migration was probably the displacement of the pure Hindus in the north by another kindred race of different political constitution, of which the Rajputs are now the best known type. This race followed agriculture as their proper calling and had fixed property in land, but simultaneously showed an aptitude for arms. In their turn they moved south and are traceable successively in Guzerat, the western coast, and the extreme south of the peninsula. The Nairs of Malabar and the southernmost part of Canara and the Vellalars of Tinnevelly are probably the most distinctive present specimen of the race. As far as the movement of races going to form a landed proprietary is concerned, the history ends with the Hindu migrations. Two Mahomedan and one British conquest have since taken place, and each has effected considerable change in the landed institutions of the country. But neither has affected the agricultural population itself. In speaking of Aryan immigrants superseding Dravidian occupants it is of course

understood that they superseded them only in the sense of being successful in introducing their own institutions and vocabulary. Upon the inflectional grammar of the Dravidian language or languages they produced no effect whatever, a certain proof of the vitality of the Dravidian race. In fact there is no such thing in the south of India as an Aryan Hindu race; the Hindus here are but Aryanized Dravidians.

Aboriginal landed institutions.

Regarding the landed institutions of the aboriginal Dravidians little or nothing can be ascertained. They must have been chiefly a pastoral race, but the cairns belonging to this period, which are to be found all over Southern India, contain brass and iron implements of agriculture, and the old Tamil language contains words showing that agriculture was practised. The language also shows that they had kings occupying fortified habitations and ruling over defined districts. On the immigration of the Aryans forming the Pandyan and later dynasties they appear to have passed for the most part into the position of prædial slaves.

The most ancient Hindu village system.

The presence of the Hindu immigration in Southern India is first traceable in the springing up of organized village communities of the type found among the ancient Teutons of the west. Tribal arrangements may have given place to village communities among the Dravidians themselves before the appearance of the Aryans; but the presence of the type just mentioned is conclusive as to Hindu influence. In the early Hindu village system the village was governed by a headman, there was a highly concentrated system for regulating common affairs, and the division of labor was rigidly carried out in the practice of the different trades and professions by individuals receiving a regulated remuneration. Local taxes for common purposes were levied rateably. The ownership by the individual in the soil was at first weak, for the land being abundant was the property of him who liked to take it, and, there being more in reserve, occupation alone could give to the land but a slight marketable value. Ownership however gradually grew stronger as occupants closed in on the first settlers. The Government, as soon as any arose, limited its operations to taking from each individual cultivator a share of the produce. This primitive form of village corporation remains more or less intact in many places to this day, the only difference being that the lower orders have been to a considerable extent emancipated and that the Government have assumed the additional duty of assigning waste lands to new occupants. It will be noticed that the communistic principle is not fully developed in the village system here described. For instance there is no joint claim to the whole village area, including waste; and there is no combination to exclude strangers. If this

form of village community corresponds, as there seems little doubt that it did, with the first Hindu immigration of Brahmins and herdsmen, it appears that those races were content with little, and easily amalgamated with the aborigines in their arrangements regarding landed property.

The more recent form.

Another form of village community sprung up at a more recent date, instituted, it is supposed, by the quasi-military Hindus who represented the second set of Hindu immigrants. This form was the result of an occupation by a body democratic among themselves, but forming an exclusive oligarchy as regards the aborigines and others whom they found before them. The distinctive features of this system of village corporation, as opposed to that already prevailing in Southern India, were that the dominant race claimed a strong proprietary right in the whole of the village area, whether cultivated or uncultivated; that they gave no franchise to aborigines or strangers; and that in their own internal administration they had a tendency to communism, and adopted government by panchayet or committee in preference to that by a single headman. In other respects the arrangements were the same as in the more ancient form. The details of their land administration will be mentioned hereafter. The Government had no concern with the distribution of lands, and it is believed that they settled, not with the individual cultivator singly, but jointly with the village authorities. These communities also exist to this day, but their special characteristics have been much curtailed. The panchayets are of less importance than they were, and have generally given place to headmen. The rents to the dominant body survive in a few cases only of what are called Swatantrams in the Chingleput District; and the rights to the waste, though still asserted by Mirasidars and Kareikárar in the southern districts, are recognised by Government only as a preferential claim, to be indulged under certain conditions and in common with other inhabitants of the village.

Ancient proprietary rights.

In the times of the early Hindu village communities proprietary rights, as defined by powers to alienate, existed to a very trifling extent. In the more ancient form of community, as has been said, tenures had no market value; and in the later and more democratic communities where rights were more decided, the land was not an individual but a common property, and one man could not without the consent of the others sell to a stranger. Still transactions occurred in the latter case among the members of the community themselves, which showed an individual ownership within that limit. Sales were not common, and mortgages were usually not foreclosable for a very long period; but the latter existed in abundance, showing a certain value in individual ownership of landed property. Individual property

in land sprung up earlier than elsewhere in the districts on the western coast, probably owing to the political circumstances which rendered the Government authority weak and the State demands light. The attitude of the Hindu rajahs with regard to the soil has been much discussed. It probably varied entirely with the circumstances of times and places. The object of Government is to obtain revenues for Government purposes. If it found communities so organized as to be able to farm the villages properly and to render the proper State dues, the Government would not interfere in the direction of the disposal of the lands claimed by the community. If it found an imperfect organization it would be forced to interfere in the disposal of the lands, especially of the waste lands, with a view to the proper development of the country and realization of the revenue. The tendency probably was for the villagers to lean more and more on the Government in these matters, and hence in many parts of the country the State interference became a regular institution. Still there is no evidence that any Hindu government ever took the step of ejecting an occupier; even if they failed to obtain their dues from him they limited their reprisals to personal torture or sale of moveable property. The sale law is not a native institution. The discussion whether the Indian governments are "proprietors" of the soil or not seems to be little more than a dispute about words.

Slavery.

By far the greater part of the laboring classes of the people must have been, during the early historical periods, in a state of acknowledged slavery. In Malabar and Canara, where the land became gradually the subject of distinct properties, the laborer was the personal slave of the occupier of the soil and was liable to be sold and mortgaged by him independently of his lands. In the Tamil country the slave was considered rather as attached to the soil. In the Telugu country only does slavery seem to have been weak. It must be noticed however that South Indian slavery was always domestic, and never the subject of foreign traffic. It even appears that in the Tamil country the Pariahs or Pallers, slaves attached to the Vellalars, and the Pullis, slaves attached to the Brahmins, used to claim hereditary landed property as the incident of their slavery. Slavery did not survive the Hindu period, except to a very limited extent. As long as the Government land-tax was moderately light, as it is believed to have been in the Hindu period, the proprietor could afford to maintain slaves and servants to cultivate for him. The Mahomedans are believed to have raised the land-tax and rendered it necessary for the landlord to work at the plough in his own person or with the help of his family. This is the explanation usually given, and there is probably some truth in it; it is by some however denied

that the land-dues of the Mahomedans were higher than those which obtained before their time. It is at any rate certain that slavery has gradually died out.

Early system of land revenue.

In the earliest times the land-revenue was the sole Government impost, and the revenue system of the country may be said to have been founded on the absence of taxation properly so called. This principle has been brought down to the present day with no very great modification, and has met with opponents. The oriental theory, as now interpreted, is that the portion of the produce of the land which is given by nature, as opposed to that which is produced as the interest of invested capital, is the proper source from which to draw revenue; and that if this be not alienated to individuals, or appropriated by them by prescription, the necessity of taxing labor or capital is obviated. This state of things is not inconsistent with the creation of private property in the occupation of land, in capital sunk in it, and in that portion of the rent which is allowed to individuals to give them an interest in the soil. The land-revenue was levied by all Hindu governments in the shape of a proportion of the gross produce fixed according to the capacity of different soils and the value of different products, or the commuted money-value of that proportion. There was no settlement for a succession of years or seasons, but each crop was divided as it was produced. The Metayer system of Italy and some other modern continental countries is but a repetition of this plan. The Government share was usually taken in kind under what is now called the Amany system. In those times when the boundaries of fields were ill-defined and the holdings very small and intermixed, and where it was the practice to thresh out grain at once after reaping, it was easier, and gave less opportunity for abuse, to divide the grain so threshed out than to calculate annual money-payments according to the quantity and quality of land actually cultivated. In certain cases, however, the value of the crop was estimated after reaping, and a portion of this value was paid in money to the State. This commutation system would naturally take the place of the other where joint settlements were made with villages. It was also considered more applicable to dry-land crops than to wet-land crops. The amount of the Government share in Hindu times was very fluctuating. The institutes of Menu would have it that the State should take of grain only "an eighth part, a tenth, or a twelfth, according to the difference of the soil, and the labor necessary to cultivate it." But it is quite certain that the average share under Hindu governments considerably exceeded these theoretical limits. The Hindu share was, as first mentioned, probably less than the Mahomedan share, but it must have been very much above the share of Menu, or it will be impossible to account for

the slow development of individual landed property. It is probable that in times of war the land demand was increased.

State of the country before the Mahomedan invasions.

Certain characteristics have been mentioned which are believed to have been broadly true of the whole of Southern India in ancient Hindu times. If a step forward is taken, and the approximately modern ante-Mahomedan period is considered, we find considerable variations in different parts of the country. For convenience sake we may roughly divide the country as existing at that period into three principal tracts, the Tamil Country, the West Coast, and the Telugu Country.

—The Tamil Country.

The Tamil country lies between Nellore on the north and the most southern extremity of the East Coast, skirting the Mysore plateau on the eastern side. It was the scene of the three old Hindu dynasties of Pandya, Chola, and Chera. The exact limits of these kingdoms cannot now be traced, and without doubt was in a state of constant change. It is only known with certainty that they met near Caroor, about 40 miles west of Trichinopoly, a town which alternately passed into the hands of each of the rivals. Pandya is generally identified with Madura, Chola with Tanjore, and Chera with Salem. In the Tamil country the republican form of village community above mentioned was especially prevalent. On the first establishment of a Tamil village the rights of occupancy of the whole land were divided into a number of equal shares or "ploughs," and apportioned to the different members of the settling community. At the earliest stage it is probable that there was common cultivation, and that the net produce after payment of taxes was divided according to the shares. Subsequently individual cultivation seems to have been carried on, but the land to be cultivated by each was reapportioned by lot in the original proportions either annually or at every five, six, or ten years. In Tanjore, Tinnevelly, Madura, Dindigul, and the other Tamil provinces south of the Coleroon, individual occupancy seems to have arisen at an early date. The division of lands was then considered permanent, and as far as occupation and cultivation went, the ancient collective tenure was converted into one of severalty. For all other purposes, however, the communistic principle still prevailed. A sharer could not sell his land without the consent of the community, and on the other hand the possession of a share, whether inherited or acquired by sale or mortgage, gave a proportionate claim to all incidents common to the village, as for instance the advantage arising out of mines or quarries, fisheries, forests, taking up of new waste, pasturage, &c. Gradually the shares became subdivided; but in the accounts of the village the original partition always remained, the small holdings being represented in terms fractional of the original shares, and the possessor of a reduced share possessing a corresponding share of the

communistic rights and duties. The name given to these communistic rights and duties was Kaniachi among the Vellalars. When the property fell into the hands of the Brahmins it was called Swastium. The same property when found in the possession of Mahomedans or Native Christians was called Mirási, the name now most usually employed in all cases; Mirás is an Arabic word, meaning inheritance or patrimony. Pasangkarei in Tamil and Sarwadáyam in Sanscrit are also terms for the same thing. In some instances, principally in Tanjore, the whole Mirási of a village was vested, either by purchase or otherwise, in the hands of one individual; it was then called Ekabhogam. The duties of the individual Mirásidars, as such, consisted of paying certain small taxes or "Merei" to the community for purposes of internal village administration. The following list taken from old accounts is illustrative of the nature of these taxes:—To feeding Brahmins on particular festivals; to lighting the village temples and gates; to expenses incurred on certain anniversaries; to feeding travellers and strangers, one meal to each; to repairing the village wall; to repairing the chief temple; to constructing a new gate for the village; paid to certain men for killing a tiger, &c., &c. The rights of the Mirásidars were more numerous than their duties, the institution being one for the assertion rather of the former than of the latter. Against the Government the Mirásidars asserted freedom from all interference in the apportionment of land within the village boundary, or in the management of village affairs; claiming the exclusive right to a hereditary possession and usufruct of the former and a hereditary authority in the latter. In Tondeimandalam lying between the south of Nellore and the Coleroon, or the country now comprising Chingleput and North and South Arcot, the Mirásidars claimed also as a perquisite a portion of arable land, called Grama Manyam, free of all Government demands. Against non-Mirásidars the claims of the Mirásidars were the same as those of any owner of landed property against strangers, the latter having no part in the corporation and being admitted to cultivate only on sufferance. Non-Mirásidars paid village taxes to the Mirási corporation, and these contributions eventually no doubt removed the necessity for the Mirásidars themselves making any contributions at all; at the present day we find the Mirásidars in some localities claiming such contributions from non-Mirásidars, in the form of a proportionate deduction from the gross produce of lands paying tax to Government, and this merely as a perquisite and without making any return for it. The village government was carried on by a panchayet, or body of five, and the headman was only president in a sort of council. The management of all internal details and the realization of the Government dues from the individual cultivator vested with this body or their delegates, and public opinion was no doubt the check on injustice.

The collection of the revenue cost the Government nothing. The demand was a maximum demand liable to remissions on the report of the village authorities. In early times each village was composed of a number of families claiming to be of the same brotherhood or class, and generally the villages in the same part of the country were of one tribe or subdivision of a tribe. The principal caste was that of the Vellalar, the professional cultivator. Non-Mirásidars were nearly always tenants of the Mirásidars collectively or severally, and in that capacity they were called Payakaries. Besides the village mereis, they paid an ordinary rent. The profit of the Mirásidar owner after paying Government dues was called Swamybhogum or landlord's profit. In many cases one family of tenants rented the same farm at a stipulated amount of share of produce for several generations, and thus gradually acquired a prescriptive right to remain and not to have their rents raised. They also gradually acquired rights of alienation. This class of tenants was called Ul-kudi or inside cultivator. Tenants who had not attained to such a position were called Para-kudi or foreign cultivator. These tenancies resembled very closely those of the *coloni* and *aratores* of the Roman empire. That the Mirásidars enjoyed a clear landlord's rent, and that individual property gradually arose, may be seen from deeds of sale belonging to the period. The Mirási system flourished as long as the Government demand was not excessive. The Mahomedan rulers are generally supposed to have augmented the land-tax to such a point as to have absorbed all landlords' rents, and to have reduced the Mirásidars to much the same position as an Ul-kudi. Tanjore retained the Mirási system the longest, and at the beginning of this century the landlord's rent was still about 25 per cent. of the crop. At the same period the Tinnevelly rent had sunk to 13½ per cent. It should be mentioned, to render the description of the Tamil system complete, that Manyams or alienations of State demands on certain lands were already prevalent in the Hindu period. In these cases the alienation was either in favor of a village servant in accordance with custom and under the authority of the village register, when it was classed as Tarabadi; or in favor of some independent person under special grant from the ruling power, when it was called Sanad or Dumbala. The Mirásidars paid the Government tax on Manyam lands to the persons to whom the rights of Government were under these arrangements transferred. Occasionally the payee would himself get possession of the land, and pay the Government dues to himself; whether this was done with the consent of the Government, or only by accident and encroachment, is a point much debated.

The tract of country known to ancient Hindu geographers as Kerala comprised the whole of the tract lying along the Western Coast and —The Western Coast.

under the mountains as far as Gokurna in North Canara. Travancore and Cochin were from the first under rajahs belonging to the land-owning class. Malabar was similarly ruled, but broke up in the ninth century into a number of petty principalities, among the chief of which was that of the Zamorins at Calicut found still in authority by Vasco de Gama at the end of the fifteenth century. Tuluva, or Canara as it has erroneously been called by the British, was established as a separate Hindu dynasty held by the land-owning class; but in the twelfth century this dynasty made way for that of the Pandyans, and a century later for that of the Telugu-speaking kings of Vijayanagar, the representatives of the old Carnatic or Canara Empire. The characteristic of the whole of the Kerala country was the presence of a strongly developed personal and individual land-property, the absence of a Government tax on land, the absence of a concentrated village system such as obtained in the Carnatic, and the existence of a military tenure similar to the feudal system of Europe. The country was originally subdivided between a race of Brahmins or priests called Namboories, and a military tribe called Nairs; these two holding in subjection the agriculturalists of the country, consisting of persons called Teers and others. The Nairs paid no land-tax, but attended the kings to the field with their retainers. The Namboories also paid no land-tax, but furnished the expenses for the support of the temples. In the ninth century a Zamorin of Calicut became a convert to Mahomedanism, and about this time a large colony of Mahomedan settlers of Arabian descent were allowed to occupy lands in Malabar. These Mahomedans, called Moplahs, were mostly merchants, and were equally exempted from payment of direct land-tax. In the absence of land-tax the kings of the country had considerable domains assigned to them, which were cultivated by slaves and yielded a sufficient revenue for household expenses. The subordinate chiefs maintained their own internal police arrangements, and, excepting in time of war, the personal expenses of the rajahs were not large. But they were not without other branches of revenue. A succession duty equal to 25 per cent. on the value of the estates was levied on Mahomedan subjects being land-holders. There were also import and export duties, mint duties, fines, escheats, confiscations, protection money received from persons of other states who claimed asylum, benevolences in the shape of offerings made to the crown at great festivals or on an occasion, and fees on marriages of important persons. There were also license-taxes, and royalties on gold ore, elephants, ivory, teak-trees, bamboos, and vessels wrecked on the coast. The inhabitants of the West Coast did not congregate together in villages, but resided in scattered habitations on their farms and in their gardens. For fiscal arrangements there were authorities in charge of defined tracts of country. The proprietary

right in the land differed from Mirási right in being individual and not communistic. Whether enjoyed by the original Nairs and Namboories, or by the more recent Moplahs, it was equally called Jenmum, or birth-right. The owners seldom cultivated their own lands, but let them out on limited leases to tenants called Patomkars. The Crown ceased to recognize the immunity from land-tax if an original Jenmumdar once parted by sale with his right. Hence mortgage was the rule of the country, and sales scarcely ever occurred. The mortgagee again could not acquire the Jenmum right by simply foreclosing; the landlord never losing the power of subsequently reclaiming his property by paying the principal, and being always entitled to some recognition of his ownership even if it were only given in the shape of a sheaf of corn or a pound of butter. The Malabar mortgages possessed another peculiarity in the principle of self-redemption. On the death of the owner of mortgaged lands, it was usual for the heir to furnish a new instrument recognizing the act of his predecessor, but on this occasion he was entitled to deduct 13 per cent. from the principal of the debt. Thus in a few generations the lands reverted to the ancient family proprietors. These were the primitive tenures of the West Coast, and as long as they were recognized by the governments, there can be little surprise that landed property so carefully protected should be strongly asserted by the holders. There is no trace that up to the time of the Mahomedan invasions there was any land-tax south of Tuluva, and in the southernmost part of Tuluva it must have been even then a very light one. The Tuluva country began to change its land-revenue features in the thirteenth century when invaded by the Pandyan king. On that occasion the original Nairs seemed to have been dispossessed in favor of a race of cultivators called Hullers, and in making the transfer of property the land-tax, such as it was, suffered an increase. It is reported that the new government required the grain to be husked before being delivered into the public stores, thus adding 10 per cent. to the impost. In A.D. 1336 when Tuluva came under the Rajah of Vijayanagar, the system was still further adapted to that prevailing in the north.

—The Telugu Country.

Regarding the Telugu country as it existed in the pre-Mahomedan period there is much less to say than regarding the two other main divisions of the Presidency; partly because it had less characteristic features, and partly because such special features as it possessed have been almost entirely obliterated by the subsequent Mahomedan and British occupations, and information on the subject is therefore very meagre. As far as can be ascertained, the village system in the Telugu country was more of the ancient non-republican form than in the more southern parts of the country. There are traces, however, in

certain parts, of a right akin to Mirási right in the ancient landholders whom the Mahomedans called Kadeem. It is known that a large proportion of the cultivators, if not all of them, possessed under the old rajahs the privilege of hereditary occupancy, and that their assessment was light. Hence the land must have been saleable. Traces of landed proprietorship are however by no means so clear as on the West Coast, or even as in Tondeimandalam. The hilly portions of the country seem to have been from time immemorial parcelled out among chieftains of the military class, who held hereditarily, exercised uncontrolled territorial jurisdiction within their limits, and appropriated the entire revenues subject to the condition of performing military service or other offices at the court of their superior rajah, at Cuttack or Vijayanagar for instance. In the plains were found a number of petty non-military Hindu rajahs, forming an ordinary landed aristocracy. These petty chieftainships obtained more or less all over the Presidency, but are the more noteworthy in the Telugu country, because it is there that they have been principally supported and incorporated into the revenue system by subsequent governments. The origin of these chieftainships was no doubt various, and while some represented old families, others were at the time of the Mahomedan invasions little more than Government officers for the collection of revenue in large tracts.

Mahomedan invasions.

India has twice been subject to Mahomedan rule, once under the Turks after the invasion of Mahommed of Ghuznee in the eleventh century, and once under the Moguls after the invasion of Baber in the sixteenth century. On each of these occasions the southern part of the peninsula was overrun by the conquerors, though not to the same extent as more northern provinces. About the year 1300 Allahoodeen formally completed the conquest of the Deccan ; and in the year 1347 we find direct Mahomedan authority extending as far south as the Kistna River. There is no accurate account of the mode in which the Turks raised supplies, but it was probably through the local Hindu chiefs. The occupation was strictly a military one, and the police and revenue administration still remained for the most part in the hands of the local chiefs. There is no distinct trace of any changes of the land revenue system. The Mahomedans were well content to leave such institutions as they found them, and indeed the only information now available as to the rates of taxation peculiar to the Hindus is that given by the Mahomedan historian Ferishta. It is asserted that the Turkish invasion had the indirect effect on landed property of forcing up the land demand exacted by the Hindu chiefs, and so of weakening private property. In the interval between the Turkish and Mogul dynasties a number of the Hindu kingdoms of the south were absorbed by Mahomedan kingdoms, the result of incessant petty wars.

This period saw the rise of the farming system, mere outside speculators taking the place in many cases of the old native rajahs. Where the Mahomedans found it inconvenient to deal with village communities and native rajahs were not at hand, they appointed farmers of the land revenue. Such men undertook the farm as a mere temporary speculation, without acquiring any local rights, claims or ties of any kind, and without interfering in any way with the existing rights of the cultivators. By the time that Akber succeeded to the throne in 1556, the conquest of the country was sufficiently confirmed to enable him to inaugurate measures of a more detailed nature for regulating the revenue system. Akber perfected the land settlement of his predecessor Shir Khan; and Malik Amber, an Abyssinian under the Mahomedan princes of the south, and Sevajee among the Mahrattas, carried out Akber's principles in a large portion of the south. The farming system had naturally led to abuses on the part of the farmers and to resistance on the part of the cultivators, and Akber was desirous of superseding it. He endeavoured to settle in all cases with village communities. With this object he surveyed and classified the lands in the villages, took the average produce of each class of land, ascertained the average price of produce for ten years past, and took one-third of the average gross produce paid in cash as the Government demand. In this way was calculated the amount to be paid by each village. At the same time a detailed statement was drawn up of the amount payable by each cultivator, for the guidance of the village authorities. The close similarity between these assessment arrangements and the assessment arrangements of the present day will be observed, and at the same time this important distinction, that village settlements have been abandoned. The assessment obtained under Akber's system was less than former assessments, but it was anticipated that the difference would be made up by increased punctuality of payment, for the joint responsibility of the community was the condition on which the reduced rates and other advantages were accorded to the villagers. The community managed their own affairs and disposed of their own waste. Under this settlement lands exempted from revenue were registered and inquired into, and those that were improperly held were resumed. Remissions were given on the occurrence of great calamities, but not otherwise. Payment was enforced by personal restraint and seizure of goods, but not by sale of lands. On the other hand the Government reserved the right to take land from those who would not cultivate and give it to others. The Mahomedan arrangements of this period were probably in many respects rather theoretical than practical, for a very short time afterwards the former farming system is found again re-established all over the country.

Early measures of the British Government.

When the administration of Southern India fell into the hands of the British the state of things was briefly as follows. Large farms were held by large renters called Zemindars, or in a few cases by native chiefs dating from the pre-Mahomedan period; certain single villages were farmed by the headmen; and in other villages the more perfect democratic communities made joint-bargains for lump payments. The part of the country first acquired, and where the first administrative steps had to be taken, was the Northern Circars, or the tract lying on the northern extremity of the present Madras Presidency between the sea-board and the Orissa hills. As little was known by the Company's servants about the tenures or settlements of the country the detailed administration was at first left entirely in the hands of the natives, the European officials merely keeping the books. The farming system was carried out even further than before. This administration was not successful. The Circars were divided into Zemindari lands, or land found in the hands of middlemen, and Havelly lands or lands not so found. At the outset the British put renters even into the Havelly lands. The Zemindars invariably sub-rented the lands to another middleman, and the speculators or renters put in by the British into the non-Zemindari lands had little regard for the welfare of the cultivators. In either case the actual cultivator retained a very small share of produce. This state of things lasted but a few years however, and in 1769 the Fort St. George Government took the detailed administration into its own hands and set about making improved settlements. The first step was to appoint Provincial Councils. They found the work too great, and did not effect much. The next step was the appointment by the Court of Directors of a Special Commission, or Committee of Circuit as it was called, consisting of certain members of the Madras Council, with instructions to make tours in the districts and institute inquiries into rights and interests. The instructions of the Court of Directors were conceived in a liberal and enlightened spirit, and were clearly and emphatically expressed. But this Committee was also a failure. The Provincial Courts did not sufficiently support its operations, and the middlemen did their best to create impediments. No fixed system was introduced. Annual leases were granted in the first instance, then settlements for three and five years. The Havelly lands were let in some cases on the village joint-settlement system, but the settlements were imperfectly made. In 1786 a Board of Revenue was established at Madras, on the pattern of the Board already existing in Bengal, and about the same time individual Collectors took the place of the Provincial Councils in the Circars.

Contemporary measures in Bengal.

In the same year that the Madras Government entered on the management of the Northern Circars, the Bengal Government assumed

that of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa; and experiments were conducted in the latter case in very much the same way as in the former. The Bengal Government however came earlier to a decision, and when Lord Cornwallis came to India as Governor-General in 1786 the plan of the permanent settlement with the Bengal Zemindars had already been arranged. An experimental settlement of the whole of Bengal for a ten-year period was announced in 1789, and in 1792 the experiment of a permanent settlement was declared to be confirmed.

Permanent settlement in Northern Circars.

The permanent alienation of the land revenue thus made to the Bengal middlemen had some supporters in Madras, and pressure was brought to bear on Madras by the Bengal Government to adopt the same policy in this Presidency. The Court of Directors wrote out to the same effect in 1795. The Madras Board of Revenue however reported that they were hardly prepared to recommend the perpetuation of the settlement, and that they required time for the collection of further information. In 1799 positive orders were brought out from England that Lord Cornwallis' permanent system was to be adopted throughout the Madras Presidency. On this occasion the Governor-General proclaimed his resolution to remove from office any public servant who evinced a want of zeal in fulfilling the intentions of Government. Eventually the Madras Government reported to the Supreme Government that they were possessed of materials for a permanent zemindari settlement in certain parts of the country. Lord Wellesley, who had by this time succeeded to the Governor-Generalship, directed the commencement of operations in the lands on the East Coast. A Special Commission was accordingly appointed, and between the year 1802 and 1804 the northern districts of Madras were permanently assessed. The lands already in the hands of Zemindars were confirmed to them in perpetuity, the assessment being fixed according to local circumstances. The Havelly lands were parcelled out into estates of a convenient size, yielding from 3,500 to 17,500 rupees annual rent, or in some cases more, and were sold as Mootahs or perpetually settled revenue farms, to the highest auction bidder. Regulation XXV of 1802 constituted both those descriptions of landholders "proprietors," and detailed the terms on which they held their property.

Settlements in the Jaghire.

The country round Madras known as the Jaghire had been obtained from the Nawab of Arcot, partly in 1750 and partly in 1763, in return for services rendered to that State. The history of its settlement at the period now under notice is of special interest, inasmuch as it shows joint-village settlements made as late as the end of the last century, and only superseded by the forcible imposition of the permanent settlement. The Jaghire was placed in 1794 in the hands of Mr. Lionel Place, and it is to this gentleman that we are indebted for the first correct infor-

mation as to landed tenures in Southern India. The villages in the Jaghire were discovered by Mr. Place to be of the class already described as democratic or Mirasi. The villages, that is to say, were corporate bodies, with an internal municipal constitution, and with the land the property of the corporation. The land was sub-divided into shares which were saleable, and still retained all the value of real property. In each village there were besides the corporate members, cultivators holding as tenants of the corporation and having on their side prescriptive rights according to ancient agreements. Again there was a third class cultivating from year to year without other privileges than that of doing so. The distinction between the shareholder and the tenant consisted in the fact that the latter could not sell his rights of occupancy, nor enjoy any of the various immunities and advantages belonging to the former as a member of the corporation. Mr. Place in making his settlements, dealt with the whole communities and not with any particular individual, and left it to the villagers to assess themselves individually. Each village chose its own representative or representatives. There is every reason to suppose that the joint village settlements of Mr. Place would have proved successful. They were not allowed however even a few years' trial. Under the orders of the Court of Directors the Jaghire was permanently settled in 1802, the lands being divided into sixty-one estates bearing an assessment of from 7,000 to 17,500 rupees, and put up to public auction as Mootahs or proprietary estates.

Acquisition of other territories.

Whilst these measures for the settlement of the more ancient territories of the Company were in progress, new territories were being added to the Presidency, and the question of land-assessment came up again for discussion in connexion with the parts of the country ceded to the English in the south. In 1792 the first war with Tippoo placed a considerable tract of country, comprising the Baramahl, or Salem as it is now called, Dindigul, and Malabar, in the hands of the English. The second war with Tippoo added Canara and Coimbatore. According to a treaty made with the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1800 the whole territory lying south of the Toongabudra and of the Kistna river after its junction with the former, was ceded in perpetuity, constituting what are now called the Ceded Districts. In 1801 all the possessions of the Nawab of Arcot in the Carnatic were made over to the British, thus carrying their possessions down to Cape Comorin.

Dealings with the Poligars.

In the lands thus newly acquired the same distinction was found as in the Northern Circars. That is to say, there were lands holding direct from Government, and lands holding through intermediary chiefs. The latter went in the south by the name of Poligars. They may be classed under three heads, as :—1st, descendants of the royal families of Vijayanagar, Conjeveram, and Madura; 2nd, the military

feudal chieftains of those sovereignties who had resisted the conquest of the Mahomedans, and had either retained by force, or through indulgence and tolerance, the estates which they had enjoyed under their ancient governments; 3rd, district collectors who had contrived to elude the immediate control of the Mahomedans, and who had gradually usurped the sovereignty of the districts. These distinctions were not recognized by the Mahomedans. All the Poligars were made to pay tribute and not according to any fixed principle, but according to the power of the government to enforce it. The management of their chiefships, and the control of their subjects, were left entirely to the Poligars; but they were almost always at war with their neighbours or in revolt against the State. Whenever the exactions of the Mahomedans were considered exorbitant they were resisted, and even if the dues were eventually paid, the Poligar took the earliest opportunity of reimbursing himself and of taking revenge by an attack on the villages holding direct of the Government. In many cases the Government ryots were obliged to compromise with the invaders by agreeing to pay a stipulated amount, denominated kavel or protection-money. This was, in fact, a sum paid to one Poligar to induce him to give protection against the encroachment of others. Under the systematic control of the British Government it was highly necessary to check the unbridled conduct of the Poligars, but having no knowledge of their true rights the Government were not always successful in dealing with them. Permanent settlements, which left about two-thirds or more of their estimated revenue, were made in the Chittoor, Kalastry, Venkataghirry, and Bomrauz Pollams; and most of those chieftains or their descendants still retain their hereditary estates. In the southern part of the Tamil country there were thirty-three Poligars, for the realization of whose tribute it was found necessary to appoint a separate European Collector. These Poligars fought desperately for what they conceived to be their rights, and their reduction forms a noteworthy incident in the military history of the Presidency. Of those chiefs who had held their patrimonial estates for several generations, we find in the year 1803 thirteen only still in possession; the lands of fourteen others were under charge of the European Collector, and six were forfeited, given away, or sold. In the districts ceded by the Nizam in 1800 there were eighty Poligars. These also resisted the Government, and had to be reduced to subjection by force of arms. In 1807 they were found to have been thus disposed of: Pensioned 2, holding a Jaghire 1, residing on their estates deprived of authority 23, managing their own estates 40, expelled by force 6, in confinement 8, total 80.

Turning to the settlement of the lands not held by Poligars, the first case calling for special notice is that of the operations in Baramahl

Settlement of Baramahl.

showing the rise of the ryotwari system. In 1792 a Commission was appointed to take charge of the Baramahl, with Captain Read at its head. Captain Read was assisted by three junior Military officers, Macleod, Graham, and Munro, and by Mr. Hurdis, a Civilian. The military exactions of Tippoo are supposed to have disorganized the natural institutions of the country and to have impaired the efficiency of the village corporations. However this may be, it is certain that the new Commission directed their attention rather to individuals than to communities. In the Tahsildars of the period they found mere receivers of the revenue, and as the idea of dealing with village communities was not favored, there was no alternative but to deal with the individual cultivator. A system of individual settlements involved a detailed survey of fields, and this work was at once undertaken. The settlement also aimed at making moderate assessments and at guaranteeing them for a short period of years. Though the assessment was to be fixed for a period, every man was to be able to add to or throw up his lands annually. No increases were to be made in the assessment on account of improvements made by the ryot, such as digging of wells, building tanks, or converting dry land into garden or rice-fields. By 1798 the Commission had completely surveyed the Baramahl and determined the rents which should be paid on the ryotwari system. The average assessment per acre was on the dry lands in the southern division 2 rupees, in the centre $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupee, and in the northern division 1 rupee. On wet lands, it was in the southern division 11 rupees, in the centre $6\frac{1}{2}$, and in the northern division $5\frac{1}{2}$. The average rent was little more than 3 shillings an acre on the common soils, and the average contribution of each cultivator was about 70 shillings a year. The ryotwar system, as thus propounded, was approved in theory by the Directors in England, but it was treated as an experimental measure and no practical steps were taken for confirming it. In 1799 orders were received, as already mentioned, for a permanent Zemindari or Mutahdari settlement throughout Madras. In pursuance of this decree the Baramahl was divided in the years 1803, 1804, and 1805 into 228 revenue farms, which were sold by auction to the highest bidders. The numerous bankruptcies which occurred showed that there was some flaw in the system. A great many of the farmers failed in the second year after having pillaged the villages placed under them. The system could not be carried out, and a return was almost immediately made to ryotwari. The supporters of the Zemindari system asserted that it failed in Baramahl only because the assessments had already been fixed too high by Read's Commission. On the side of the village-settlement system it is said that no trial was made of it. The practical result however was that ryotwari prevailed. What is said here of the Baramahl applies for the most part to the history of adjacent parts

during the same period, for instance of Dindigul and Coimbatore. The Ceded Districts were brought under the ryotwar system by Colonel Munro a few years later.

Settlements in Malabar.

The remainder of the Madras provinces consisted of Malabar and Canara. The ancient feudal system which existed in Malabar has already been mentioned. The country was in the hands of a race of rajahs or military leaders, and their retainers the Nairs, holding in subjection the Teers, and other laborers, the ancient inhabitants of the country. Instead of the districts in Malabar being assessed at so many thousand pagodas, they were rated at so many men liable to be called to the field. At the peace of 1792 Malabar was ceded to the British Government by Tippoo Sultan. It had been first invaded by the Mahomedans under Hyder Ally thirty-four years previously; its invasion being invited in the first place by the Palghat Rajah to enable him to repel the attack of the Zamorin of Calicut. The landlords of Malabar did not yield readily, and in the struggles which ensued between them and the Mysore Government most of the ancient landed proprietors were either killed or expelled. In the year 1783 Arshed Beg Khan was put in by Hyder as Governor of Malabar, and his administration appears to have been more lenient and equitable than that of any of his predecessors. The principles of his assessment are said to have been as follows:—to the cultivator 5½ tenths, to the proprietor 1½ tenths, to the Government 3 tenths. Shortly after the cession to the British a committee, consisting of two Bengal and two Bombay servants, were deputed to make a settlement of the country; and their report, issued in 1793, consisting of several volumes, furnishes a full account of the district. In this province, where the landholders maintained that not only were they the proprietors of their estates, but that under the Native princes they had never paid a land-tax at all, the doctrine of State proprietary right to the land then prevailing and a claim to half the produce assumed in other places, were not likely to be acceptable. The Bengal and Bombay Commissioners found that in Malabar no such claims could be enforced, and they proposed to regulate the future demand by the assessment of Arshed Beg Khan. The first settlement, or rather realization of revenue, fell short of that amount by about 25 per cent., and an attempt to raise the rates caused an open rebellion, which lasted for some years and cost a heavy expenditure of lives and money. In 1800 the province was transferred from the Bombay to the Madras Government, and its management was made over to Major Munro, the advocate of ryotwari, who in effect introduced the ryotwari system there. One of the earliest of this officer's measures was a survey and assessment. These led to urgent complaints, which were unattended to, and which ended in another rebellion more violent than the former. The second rebellion

was suppressed, more by conciliation than coercion, and the result was the recognition on the part of Government of the proprietary right of the landholders to their estates. Peace being restored, the chief Brahmins and landed proprietors assembled at the Collector's invitation at his office, where they selected a committee from among themselves, to arrange matters for the future administration of the province. On this occasion the landholders agreed, after allowing 50 per cent. of the produce to the cultivator, to pay to Government a sum of money estimated at 20 per cent. of the gross produce themselves, retaining 30 per cent. as rent. It was decided that the assessment should be founded on the survey and assessment of 1800. Affairs remained thus for several years, but meanwhile many complaints were made as to the inequality of the assessment, the people not being satisfied with the arrangement of 1800. In 1817 Colonel Munro, who had been the principal agent in suppressing the last rebellion and in making the last settlement, was deputed to visit and report on the condition of the province; the chief result of the visit was a reduction in the assessment. It should be mentioned that there are no compact villages in Malabar similar to those in the Carnatic. The taluks in Malabar are divided into Amshoms, which are again subdivided into Deshams. Over each Amshom is a headman called Adhigari, associated with an accountant called Menon. These officials are paid by fixed salaries. The Deshams are presided over by honorary headmen called Mukyastans. The houses are scattered, and there is therefore no village-site.

Settlements in Canara

In Canara individual landed property was not so demonstrable a fact as in Malabar. The primitive constitution of the district had been changed at its conquest in the 13th century by the Pandyan kings, and subsequently by the kings of Vijayanagar. In later times it had been partially subdued by Hyder, whose exactions, continued and augmented by his successor Tippoo, are said to have impoverished the landlord class. When the British Government obtained possession, the saleable lands were few in number and limited in extent, and many of the landlords were reduced to the situation of laborers on their own estates. Still there could be no doubt with whom the Government should settle; proprietary rights were strong enough to render the question of employing middlemen or of making joint-rent village settlements quite unnecessary. Major Munro entered this district for settlement in 1800, and at once established a ryotwar system which was not subsequently modified. The extent of land in Canara for purposes of assessment has always been measured by the amount of seed it takes to sow it. The settlement for a share of the produce has always been in the name of an individual holder, against whose name in the public accounts is entered every charge to which he is liable. This is the holder's "wurg" or account, a word which has come to mean "holding"

in the Revenue system. Major Munro found this method of settlement obtaining, and continued it without change. No alteration was allowed in any man's wurg except on good cause being shown. No general survey of the district was introduced, but partial surveys were instituted for the purpose of obtaining general data for assessment. A complete register, called the Bijawari register, was formed of the extent, calculated by the seed, of each holder's wurg. The only difficulty was with the amount of the assessments. The settlement of Hurry Hur Roy, Rajah of Vijayanagar, made in the 14th century, was for a long time the standard assessment. Hurry Hur Roy took 2½ katties of seed as the basis of the calculation, and assuming the proportion between seed and gross produce to be that of 1 to 12, he apportioned the gross produce thus:—to the landlord 7½ katties, to the cultivator 15 katties, to the Government 7½ katties. The Bednore Government left this assessment as they found it till 1618, when the Government share was increased by 50 per cent. The total jummah of Canara at the close of the Bednore Government amounted to pagodas 320,827. Hyder increased this to pagodas 533,202. Colonel Munro's settlement in 1800 amounted to pagodas 465,148; of this pagodas 284,603 was composed of the ancient land-tax or Shist, and pagodas 180,545 stood for extra assessments imposed by the Bednore and Mysore Governments, the extra imposts of the latter being called Shamil. The inequalities caused by the new British assessment were found in the course of a few years to be intolerable, and in 1817 a thorough investigation was instituted, ending eventually in the so-called Tharao assessment in 1819. The Tharao was a maximum assessment which the Collector could not exceed of his own authority, and was based on a detailed investigation of the collections on particular estates. The Tharao assessment was considered a moderate one when it was made, but it was a considerable time before the country attained even that standard, and constant remissions were necessary. The total amount of the Tharao assessment for the entire province of Canara was Rupees 15,24,879 on 34,216 ryots as against Rupees 16,72,607 of the ancient Beriz comprising both Shist and Shamil. Canara has since been divided into two separate divisions, the southern division only remaining with Madras, the northern division going to Bombay. The village arrangements in South Canara are somewhat similar to those in Malabar, each wurg having its house situated upon it. The headmen of villages are called Potails, and the curnams, of whom there is one for each group of villages termed Mâgâne or Taraf, are called Shanbogues.

Trial of village-rent system.

In the various experiments which were made during the first twenty years of the century in the mode of settlement for the land-revenue, the Zemindari and Ryotwari systems played the most important part.

The village joint-rent system was not however entirely overlooked. In 1808 this method was given a general trial in several districts on the authority of the Court of Directors. The Madras Board of Revenue were distinctly in favor of the system, and had not Colonel Munro been so much opposed to it, it is possible that it might have had a different fate. The plan was tried at first for a term of three years. The result was not entirely satisfactory. In many parts the head inhabitants, conceiving the assessment excessive and finding themselves obliged to ask for remissions annually, refused to rent their villages. Speculators then came forward and out-bid each other, so that the villages were rented at a sum beyond what they could yield, and the contractors failed. Still the Government were satisfied on the whole, and in many cases made a further ten-year settlement on the same principle. It was even proposed by some to make a perpetual village settlement. The ten-year settlement was not approved by the Court of Directors, but their objections arrived too late to be acted on. A visit to England however made by Colonel Munro had probably not been without its effect upon the opinions of the Court of Directors and the Board of Control; and towards the close of 1817 instructions were received at Madras for the abolition of the village system, and the confirmation in all practicable cases of the plan of ryotwar settlement with individual holders. It was alleged that the village system had been tried and had failed. The Revenue authorities declared that it had not been subjected to a fair trial, and that it had not failed. They alleged too that the Home authorities had decided hastily on insufficient evidence. "The judgment," the Board of Revenue wrote, "which has been pronounced in England against the village system, is founded on a very partial and unfavorable view of its results; for it does not appear that the authorities at home had, at the time when that judgment was passed, any information before them respecting any other portion of it than its commencement, the triennial settlement." And they urged that the result of that settlement was no test of the success or failure of the system, inasmuch as the lands had been subjected to an over-assessment, "founded upon the fallacious data of the Ryotwar collections."

Final establishment of Ryotwari.

The Ryotwar system was however by this time in favor at home, and orders were sent out for its reintroduction, in all possible cases, under certain modifications prescribed by the Court. At this period, in Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, Guntoor, Salem, Chingleput, the Cuddalore District, and the Western, Southern, and Chittoor Pollams, the Permanent Zemindari system prevailed; in the Ceded Districts, Nellore, the two divisions of Arcot, Palnad, Trichinopoly, Tinnevelly, and Tanjore, the village system had been introduced; and the ryotwar system was fully established only in Malabar, Canara,

Coimbatore, Madura, and Dindigul. The orders were carried out; and all the necessary preliminaries having been gone through, the village leases having expired, many of the new Zemindaries or Mootahs having lapsed or been bought in, the improved ryotwar system was declared to be established in Madras. Colonel Munro himself, who had been appointed to the chief place in the Government, took his seat in time to preside over the act of final establishment in the spring of 1820. Since 1820 there has been a periodic revision of the rates of assessment in ryotwari lands; a Special Commission has dealt with the whole question of Inam or rent-free lands; and various legal enactments have been passed for the protection of various landed interests or for the realization of the Government dues. In the broad policy of Government however as to tenures and settlements there has been no change.

(*b*).—Present Land Tenures.

Classification of tenures under Government.

Whatever be the correct theory of law or political economy as to the nature of the rights of Government in respect to land, an abstract question which has been much and perhaps uselessly discussed, it is quite evident that they must, as a Government representing the interests of the people at large, exercise a considerable amount of interference in affairs connected with the land. Whether this is called executive administration or exercise of a proprietary right is not of much importance. It is certain that a modern Government assumes large powers of interference under the unwritten traditional law of this and all other countries. The subject of land-tenures under Government will be classified here according to the extent to which the Government has parted with its own powers to control the disposal of, or the revenue demand on, the land; beginning with the cases of greatest alienation and ending with those of least. A classification according to either one or other of those two descriptions of control would have been preferable; but the subject is too complex to admit of such treatment. Following then this rough classification, the main cases to be considered will be those of:—(1) Perpetual freeholds, with fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against Government, and no demands representing either a land-tax or the share of the produce. Cases will be (*a*) holdings under recent rules for redeeming the land-revenue, (*b*) holdings under the rules for redeeming building-site quit-rents, and (*c*) holdings under the rules for redeeming enfranchised Inam quit-rents. (2) Holdings of enfranchised Inamdars, with a fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against Government, and a quit-rent fixed for ever, calculated at a beneficial rate. (3) Zemindaries dating from earlier than 1802, with fixed tenure, a sannad showing proprietorship

as against Government, and fixed land dues, with obligation for the Zemindar to enter into written engagements with his tenants, and subject to the law of primogeniture as to succession. (4) Proprietary estates, that is to say Zemindaries created under the authority of the Regulations of 1802, with the same conditions, but no law of primogeniture. (5) The so called Unsettled Palliems without a sannad, but with land demand fixed for ever. (6) Holdings of ryots under Ryotwari, with fixed tenure, but without a sannad expressly declaring proprietorship, and with a demand varying under certain special circumstances. (7) Inam holdings, given by Government as emolument or in charity, with no title-deed showing unconditional property, with a tenure dependent on the fulfilment of certain conditions the decision as to which rests with the Government, and with a demand calculated as under Ryotwari but at highly favorable rates, the difference between these and normal rates constituting the emolument. (8) Land held on special conditions as (*a*) on cowles, and (*b*) under the tope rules. (9) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government, but to which, as part of village areas, certain persons have a preferential claim when application is made for their occupation. (10) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government without any such restriction.

Perpetual freeholds.

Absolute and perpetual freeholds have not existed in this Presidency until quite recently, and can now be acquired only by taking the benefit of the rules for redeeming the land-revenue, building-site quit-rents, and enfranchised Inam quit-rents. In regard to the first and second of these modes of redemption, it must be observed that inasmuch as land-tax is the main constituent of public revenue it is not allowed to be redeemed universally. It is only allowed in the case of lands occupied for building purposes or intended for gardens and plantations, of lands on the Nilgiris and the Pulny and Shevaroy hills, and of the coffee lands in the Wynad. In all these cases proprietors are allowed to redeem their land-tax, the rate of redemption being twenty-five times the sum annually paid on the land as assessment or quit-rent. The cost of survey and demarcation is borne by the person who redeems the assessment. In Zemindaries the Zemindar alone is given the right to redeem the land-revenue. In the case of ryotwari lands the proprietor holding directly from Government has alone the right. Applications for the redemption of land-revenue are disposed of by Collectors subject to an appeal to the Board of Revenue. On payment of the redemption money in full, with the cost of survey and demarcation, the party redeeming the assessment is furnished with a title-deed in a certain prescribed form. The third mode of redemption shown above introduces the question of the Inam tenures of this Presidency, but as these are described in detail under the head "Inam Commission,"

it is only necessary here to mention that Inamdars holding lands enfranchised from service or from Government resumption, but subject nevertheless to a quit-rent, may redeem that quit-rent in perpetuity at twenty years' purchase. The class of holders mentioned in this paragraph have of course unlimited powers of alienating, devising, or disposing of their land. It will be observed that the freehold is absolute against that demand of the Government only which represents the Government right to share the produce, and gives no immunity from other Government demands, such as for artificial irrigation, education, or such matters; in all of which cases the land may be subjected to separate cesses or demands. The land also will always be liable to attachment, in the same way as any other land, in the event of its becoming obnoxious to any legal penalty which authorizes its attachment or sale. The redemption in no way affects sub-tenures, right of occupancy, or other similar rights; and the freedom conferred is absolute only as against Government.

Zemindaries.

In the case of Zemindaries the land has been perpetually assigned by the Government, with a proprietary title, at any rate as against themselves. The land-dues however still remain as a charge on the land. The land-dues here are permanently paid, and may be taken therefore to be no longer a share of the produce but a tax. Zemindars hold under a "Sunnad-i-milkut Istimrar" and give in exchange a corresponding cabooleat or acceptance. Zemindars are at liberty to transfer, without the previous consent of Government, their proprietary right in the whole or part, however small, of their Zemindaries to any person they please by sale, gift, or otherwise; and such transfers are to be held valid and to be respected by the courts and officers of Government, provided they are not repugnant to the Mahomedan or Hindu law or to the regulations of the British Government. In order to be valid against Government, and in order to liberate the transferer from his liability to Government dues, such transactions must be first registered in the Collector's office, and where there is a sub-division, the peishcush on the sub-divided portion must be adjusted by the Collector. The Government do not regulate the succession to Zemindaries. They sometimes interfere to recognize a *primâ facie* claimant in cases of demise and pending decision of the law courts, but nothing more. The Zemindar is in most cases the owner of all waste land, or land not held by cultivators, within his estate, and he has certain powers of selling up cultivators for default of payment of land-tax which will be mentioned hereafter. The land being "permanently settled," that is to say, the land-revenue on it being fixed for ever, no increase of revenue accrues to the State as more and more land is brought under cultivation. Since the land-revenue on these estates was fixed their value has doubled, but the benefit goes to the Zemindar

alone. On the other hand the Zemindar's demand does not protect him from cesses for matters other than land-revenue proper. Zemindars have to keep up the regular establishment of village curnams or accountants; they appoint these officials, but a civil court alone can remove them. About one-fifth of the whole Presidency is under Zemindari. The obligations laid upon Zemindars in their dealings with their tenants will be described hereafter in treating of tenancy.

—Ancient Zemindaries.

The principal of the ancient Zemindaries found by the British Government on its assumption of the country may be said to have been Vizianagram in the Vizagapatam District, Pittapur in the Godavari, Venkatagiri in the Nellore District, and Ramnad and Shivagunga in the Madura District; but there were numerous other large estates of the same sort, especially in the north. These Zemindaries differ at the present moment from those subsequently created under Regulation XXV of 1802 in two respects only. In cases of succession by death the law of primogeniture obtains, the eldest son succeeding and the remainder of the family being entitled to no more than maintenance; and the Zemindar cannot encumber or alienate the estate beyond his own lifetime.

—Other Zemindaries.

The private estates conferred under Regulation XXV of 1802 go by various names, as Proprietary Estates, Zemindaries, Muttahs, &c. They must not be confounded with Jaghires, Shrotriems, and other classes of Inam holdings; mere assignments of land-revenue already assessed by Government with no question of the Inamdars either farming the revenue or being proprietors of the land, and having no connexion with the Regulation just named. In the case of all estates which are not ancient Zemindaries, the ordinary Hindu rule of inheritance prevails. They are sub-divided and alienated freely like any other form of real property. The Government have no concern with regard to the succession.

—Details regarding Zemindaries.

A table in the appendix (Statement V) shows the names of all the Zemindars in the Presidency, with particulars as to their estates, according to the best information down to the present date.

Inams enfranchised, but unredeemed.

Inamdars who have accepted the terms of enfranchisement, but have not redeemed the quit-rent payable on their lands, call for notice here. They pay quit-rent, but their tenure, as regards security of occupation without conditions, and fixity of land demand, is superior to that of any class of landholders other than those who have redeemed. They have full powers of alienation, while they are protected from the periodic revision of the ryotwari rates contemplated by the Revenue Settlement Department.

Poligar estates.

Poligars hold in the southern and western portions of the Madras Presidency very much the same position as the Zemindars of the

northern districts. Originally Poligars were the descendants of officers of police and revenue agents of the Hindu sovereigns, who advanced themselves to the position of chiefs possessing military forces and strongholds. Gradually they reached the condition of tributary feudatories and proprietors of lands. Their historical relations with the British Government have already been described. All the Palliems have been assessed. Some have been granted permanent settlement under Regulation XXV of 1802, with sannads. The Palliems for which no sannads have been granted are called unsettled Palliems. Practically there is no difference between the settled and unsettled Palliems. The assessment is fixed and permanent in both cases and the succession is governed under the same principles. It was once considered that the holder of an unsettled Palliem had but a life interest in the Palliem, and that it was open to Government to dispose of the Palliem as they pleased on his death, but this view was not accepted by the Privy Council in a case recently decided by them. The Government have directed the issue of permanent sannads to the holders of all such unsettled Palliems as may be willing to accept them on the condition of continuing the tribute which they have been paying for upwards of fifty years. Most of the Poligars have accepted the sannads, but there are a few to whom they have not yet been issued. These latter then have a demand perpetually settled but no permanent title, and form a distinct class in the terms of the classification given above. There were formerly also a few estates called Palliems held for real or nominal police services to be rendered to Government in the districts of Nellore, North Arcot and South Arcot. These were settled by the Inam Commissioner and enfranchised as Inams.

Ryotwari tenure.

The ryotwari system of holding under Government has now been the principal tenure of this Presidency for half a century. It is difficult to define it in one or two words, but this only arises from the inapplicability to oriental tenures of the phraseology of European landed property. The terms of the engagement can easily be enumerated, and these terms are sufficiently well understood and practically acted on by the persons concerned. No serious difficulty has as yet arisen owing to any difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the ryotwari contract. In ryotwari tenure the Government deals with an individual, who is technically assumed to be acting on his own account and not to be a middleman. As he is usually a very small holder this is often actually the case. The Government allow a ryot who has once acquired possession to remain in possession as long as he pays the Government dues. Even when he becomes a defaulter, they merely sell such portion of his land as is sufficient to cover the amount due, and under cover of a special law for so doing; they do not

dispossess him by any form of eviction other than that provided by the legislature under Madras Act II of 1864. If a ryot without authorization takes possession of waste assessed land the Government do not nevertheless evict him. In the particular case of a ryot taking possession of unassessed waste land, the Government reserve the right of putting on a prohibitory assessment; for here the land is very probably land which it is undesirable to cultivate. The Government concede to the ryot complete power to alienate the land by lease, mortgage, or sale, and only stipulate that, unless he formally registers such alienation with the Collector, he will remain liable for all Government dues on the land however accruing. The trees on putta lands are absolutely the property of the puttadars, and nothing is charged for them except in the case of palmyras in the district of Tinnevelly. In Tinnevelly the tree-tax can be redeemed by the payment of twenty years' assessment. The most important item in the yearly demand, namely the normal land-tax, is fixed in advance and is liable to revision according to present arrangements only once in every thirty years from time of first settlement. Even when a revision takes place it has been guaranteed that no increase shall take place on account of improvements made by the cultivator himself. The normal rate of land-tax is fixed, but every year numerous questions arise of concessions made or extra demands for extra benefits conferred; the settlement of these questions takes place at the annual Jummabundy. Moreover, the ryot has the power of yearly increasing, decreasing, or entirely abandoning his holdings; this has also to be attended to at the Jummabundy. The law courts have recently declined to recognize the proprietary rights evidenced by the power to create an easement against Government, in ryotwari holders not claiming as hereditary mirasidars and newly put in by the British Government; but this is believed to be a new doctrine. The ryotwari system has taken the place in most localities of the Mahomedan system of renting whole villages to a single individual and leaving it to him to sub-rent to the villagers. It is popular with the people, and creates an elastic revenue which expands as increasing population and prosperity cause more land to be taken up. On the other hand it must be observed that the absence of middlemen causes an enormous amount of detailed labor on the part of the Government.

—Principles of settlement of Ryotwari.

Though the State has a right to fix the land-tax at its discretion, it does so in accordance with certain principles. In ryotwari it is held that, with a few exceptions, its proper amount is half the value of the net produce of the land after the expenses of cultivation have been deducted from the gross produce. At the commencement of the ryotwari settlement the tax was determined in a somewhat rough-and-ready manner, which left many anomalies and inequalities to be afterwards rectified. The worst of these have been amended from

time to time, and at the present time there is a Survey Department which determines the exact area of villages and sub-divisions of villages (khandams) and fields, and a Settlement Department which calculates the rate of assessment for each in accordance with the "half net" principle. The calculation of produce and assessments thus revised are to be in force for thirty years. In Godavari, Kistna, and part of Kurnool an important deviation has been allowed from the "half-net" principle in the case of land irrigated by channels led from the great anicuts across the Godavari, Kistna, and Tungabudra. The land-tax there has been calculated as if the land were not irrigated, and the irrigation is charged for at a uniform rate per acre. Further information regarding the Survey and Settlement Departments which underlie the whole ryotwari system will be found further on under the special sections allotted to those subjects.

—Ryotwari puttas.

It has already been mentioned that the Government have in times past furnished a title-deed setting out what is there called proprietary right in the case of all Zemindars either ancient or created within this century, and that they still continue to furnish such title-deeds to persons who redeem the land-dues in perpetuity by a lump sum payment. No such title-deed, however, is given to ryots holding under ryotwari, and they are left to make their own arrangements as to creating a title when they dispose of lands by private transaction. When first a ryot is put in possession of land he is furnished with a document called a putta. But this is liable to revision at each annual Jummabundy, and is merely a document to show that, according to the Government register, the ryot for that year holds, without relinquishment, such and such survey fields, or parts of them, and that the Government looks to that ryot and no other for the Government land-dues until further notice. As long as the ryot actually holds the land according to the terms of the register, it is of service to him, as showing that the Government will not attempt to put any one else in possession and will not exercise any powers of attachment or resumption of the land without first dealing with him; and the attachment to landed property is a sufficient motive to make this a very important consideration. In the law courts however a putta is very weak evidence to prove possession, inasmuch as there is nothing to show that the arrangement therein indicated has not been superseded by some subsequent private transaction, and even at the outset the Revenue officials in issuing a putta do not attempt to do more than give it to the person who has best *primâ facie* claim to possession. Regulation XXVI of 1802, Section 3, declares that the court shall not recognize transfers of land other than those shown in the register of landed property, and the register coincides with the puttas issued; but this provision is held to make unregistered transfers invalid only as against

Government, and with reference to the Government dues. The putta in fact, as has lately been expressed by legal authority, does not assume to be any muniment of title, a subject on which the Government is silent; but is only a document indicating certain fiscal arrangements between the Government and the individual mentioned in it. The putta given to the ryot is his surety against Government. No document of acceptance is received by Government from the ryot, as it is considered unnecessary, the law making the land and its produce liable to attachment for arrears in the land-dues in preference to any other claim and whoever be in occupation. A register however called a Chittah, showing the settlement of each individual, is maintained in each village; ryots who are able to read are allowed to examine this register and can sign their names in it if they wish.

—Transfers of Ryotwari puttas.

Occasions will often arise when persons wish to transfer their ryotwari puttas to others. This the Government are always ready to do on production of agreements from both persons interested. In such cases the persons concerned prefer a joint application in the office of the Tahsildar of the taluk in which the land is situated. The Tahsildar publishes a notice thirty days in advance in the villages concerned, and if no objections are raised, he himself orders the transfer. A putta is then issued in the name of the transferee at the next Jummabundy. Meanwhile, as a rule, the new holder gets possession. In cases where transfer is sought under a decree from a Civil Court sanctioning the transfer, consent of the parties is of course unnecessary, nor is notice given to villagers. Looking to the fact that a transferee cannot obtain a putta except the transferer is willing to enter with him into a joint agreement to that effect, it has been suggested that a law should be passed for the protection of the transferee making registration of transfers in the Collector's register compulsory. It has not hitherto been thought, however, that the loss of the putta is of sufficient importance to the transferee to make it necessary to legislate. In the event of the demise of a person whose name is entered in the Government register, the Government themselves take steps to ascertain who is the proper successor. On the occasion of each demise the village curnam reports to the Tahsildar, and the Tahsildar reports to the Collector. In one or other of these reports, or in both of them, the name is given of the person or persons who appear *primâ facie* to have the best claims to succeed, under the Hindu or Mahomedan law of succession as the case may be. The Collector, when satisfied, causes a putta to be issued in the name of the presumptive heir or heirs. The transfer of puttas is carried out as a departmental arrangement and under no legislative enactment. The most ordinary cases are where the son or sons succeed the father. Among Hindus property vesting in a person descends in the following order:—Sons, sons' sons, sons'

grandsons, wife, daughters, mother, father, brother, brothers' sons, paternal grandmother, paternal grandfather, paternal great grandfather, his sons, his sons' sons, the other ascending ancestors, and their sons and sons' sons in like order. The above is the ordinary line of succession. But there are various complications of law; for instance if an undivided member of a family dies, leaving only a widow and a brother, the latter succeeds in preference to the former. The Mahomedan law of succession is still more complicated. But the Revenue authorities do not strictly go into the details of law in issuing puttas to the heirs of the deceased individuals. The putta is issued to the *primâ facie* heir or heirs, leaving the question of possession and other rights to be decided in Civil Courts. But when courts pass their decrees in regard to succession, puttas are issued by the Revenue authorities according to these decisions. The Hindu law of succession favors partition and creates very numerous sub-divisions in the puttas.

—Joint puttas and divided puttas.

In both of the cases of transfer just named, whether that is to say the transfer is effected before or after death, occasions will arise when either two parties wish to be entered jointly and severally in a joint putta, or a person holding a putta desires to split it up and transfer part of it. The former case will arise occasionally when partition is inconvenient, as for instance when the heirs to a single deceased holder are joint widows; the State does not encourage joint puttas, but it raises no absolute objection if it suits the parties. The Government will not separate a putta once made joint without the consent of all the parties, even though one asserts a grievance. The latter case, where it is sought to subdivide a putta, is of course of constant occurrence. There were formerly certain regulations checking the splitting up of blocks or fields marked off by the peimash or Survey Department; but these were abolished in 1875, and there is now no limit to the smallness of a holding for which a Government putta will be issued. Inquiry is being made as to whether this entails inconvenience and whether a limit is desirable.

—Application for Ryotwari lands.

Assessed land will be vacant under various circumstances, as for instance, owing to its having never been occupied, or to its having been just thrown up by a ryot, or to its having lapsed to Government on a demise or at a revenue sale. When there are assessed lands in a village thus unoccupied, it is open to any individual, whether resident of the village or not, to apply for the land to be held by him under the terms of the ryotwari tenure. All applications by strangers are invariably communicated to the Mirasidars and other resident villagers so that they may have the refusal, and it is only when the Mirasidars and residents do not agree to take up the lands that they are given to strangers. When there are two or more applicants for the same land,

preference is given to the ryot whose land adjoins, and when there is no such claimant, to the first among the applicants who is a ryot of the village in preference to a stranger. But no preferential claim on the ground of possession of the adjoining land, or of the residence in the village, is admitted in favor of a ryot by whose relinquishment the land becomes unoccupied and available for allotment. In all cases Durkhasts for whole survey fields have preference over Durkhasts for portions only. The applications are in the first instance disposed of by the Tahsildar. From his decision an appeal lies to the Divisional Officer if made within thirty days; and from his decision again an appeal can be made to the Collector within thirty days. The Collector's decision is usually final, but where a Collector has passed the decision on appeal from a Tahsildar within his own division a special appeal lies to the Board of Revenue if made within forty days.

—Relinquishment of Ryotwari lands.

Ryots are allowed to relinquish their lands provided they apply for permission to relinquish sufficiently early in the season to enable others to commence cultivation upon them. The dates up to which ryots are permitted to relinquish their lands in the several districts are shown below:—

South Canara, Malabar	30th April of the fasli preceding for which relinquishment is made.
Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godavari, Kistna	31st May do.
Bellary, Cuddapah, Kurnool, Nellore, North Arcot, Salem, Coimbatore	15th July of the fasli for which relinquishment is made.
Chingleput, South Arcot, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Madura, Tinnevelly	15th August do.

The dates vary so as to follow those of the first rains in each district. The lands relinquished must be accessible to others, otherwise the relinquishment is not accepted. For instance a ryot would not be permitted to retain all the fields in his holding except the centre one, as this would not be an eligible holding for another ryot.

—Ryotwari on the Western Coast.

The tenures and settlements as between Government and the payer of the land-dues are in Malabar and Canara professedly a mere form of ryotwari. The special arrangements which exist in those districts between the landlord and his tenants do not as a rule affect the Government, and in dealing with the occupant the Government ignore

as much as possible the existence of middlemen, or of interests other than their own. Sometimes, for instance, the Government puttadar in Malabar is a jenmi landholder with his tenants under him, and sometimes he is a Patomkar tenant owing his separate rent to a superior jenmi; but into this the Government do not go. Again in Canara, though the landlord's right or mûli-hak sometimes falls to Government by escheat, the Government are in the habit of taking steps for divesting themselves of it and of handing it over to the occupying ryot. In some respects, however, there are considerable differences between this sort of ryotwar settlement and the ordinary ryotwari settlement, even from the Government point of view. For instance there is no detailed survey in these districts, and the settlements are made not on fields but on holdings. Again, there are doubts how much waste lands are at the disposal of Government, a considerable portion being at present claimed as private property. Remissions again are never needed, owing to the certainty of the seasons and the lightness of the assessment. The ancient character of the proprietary rights enjoyed by West Coast landlords has already been seen from the historical sketch of land tenures. They are to the individual what the Mirasi rights of the Eastern Coast are to the community.

—Ooloogoo, Mottafysal and Amani.

The Ooloogoo, Mottafysal and Amani systems of settlement involve questions of demand rather than of tenure. In all cases where the Government apply them, they apply them to the individual ryot, and they are therefore different forms of ryotwari. Details of the demand will be given hereafter.

Lands held on Cowles, &c.

A cowle is an agreement to hand over land without payment for a certain period, or on payment for a certain period of a diminished assessment gradually rising to full assessment. When the period is finished the holder becomes a ryotwari holder, but not before. In the meanwhile he is subject to the terms of the contract contained in the cowle. The cowle tenure is usually granted to induce cultivators to break up unpromising waste lands. Though much used between Zemindars, Inamdars, &c., and their tenants, cowles are not in frequent use by Government. Lands held under the tope rules hereafter to be described fall in reality, though not nominally, under this class of tenure. If the Government have good grounds under the contract for dispossessing the cowledar, they can do so and re-enter on the land. It will be noticed that this right is never claimed in the case of an ordinary Government ryot.

Ordinary Inam tenures of land.

When the State has given up its right to the land-tax, or a portion of it, in favor of an individual or an institution, or to remunerate persons for performing certain duties, the grant is termed an Inam or Manyam. A very large number of such grants was made by former

Governments, and it was a condition of most of them that they could not be alienated without the consent of the State, that they would escheat to Government on the failure of male heirs in the direct line, and that they might be cancelled on the occurrence of any lapse. In some cases the grants were to be resumed after a certain number of lives, that is to say after a certain number of successions by inheritance. Other Inams depended on the execution of certain religious observances, or the performance of certain State services. In 1858 a Commission was established to examine the titles of the possessors of Inams, and to enfranchise them if they wished by commuting for a moderate quit-rent the right of Government to prevent alienation, to resume, or to demand service. There are still certain Inam lands the holders of which have not accepted the terms of enfranchisement offered by the Inam Commission. These remain on the old and very restricted tenure. They are subject to favorably calculated dues on account of land-tax, but on the other hand they have a tenure very inferior to that of enfranchised Inamdars or even to that of ordinary ryotwar holders. They cannot alienate their land. Succession is prescribed as above shown in a definite way. They hold only on the fulfilment of certain conditions, and Government claims an absolute right to adjudicate as to the proper fulfilment of those conditions. In the case of Village Service Inams the tenure may almost be said to be at the pleasure of Government. Full particulars regarding Inams will be given under the heading of Inam Commission.

Farming the Revenue.

The principle of farming out the land-revenue in certain localities for a certain period has almost disappeared. Some rents, however, still remain. Thus in the Vizagapatam District the Hoongeram and Palconda Taluks are rented out on a lease of years to a mercantile firm. Reckoning these taluks and detached villages together there are throughout the Presidency 331 villages rented out, 87 in Vizagapatam, 231 in the Godavari, 12 in Chingleput, and 1 in North Arcot. A large number of these are hill-villages not surveyed and not touched by the Settlement Department. The old joint-rent system, where the villagers themselves took up the lease and were jointly and severally responsible, has now entirely disappeared. The last trace of it existed a few years ago in the hilly parts of the Godavari.

Mirasi rights.

The rights which go by the name of Mirasi must be mentioned here. They are not sufficiently strong to be classed as tenures or rights against Government, such as Zemindari or Ryotwari; but they are sometimes more than the mere preferential right to occupy new land hereafter to be mentioned, and they are recognized by the Government. The origin of mirasi rights in the Tamil country has been

already described in the historical sketch of land tenures. Nearly all that remains now of the special rights of the communal oligarchies is the claim by certain hereditary mirasidars in the Chingleput District to fees upon waste which may hereafter be brought under cultivation, and upon lands now occupied by non-mirasidars which may hereafter be thrown up and again re-occupied under the Durkhast rules. These fees, otherwise called Swatantrams, were formerly taken from the gross produce before the division of the crop, and were then paid to the mirasidars both by the ryots and by the Government. They are now made payable entirely by the ryots, liberal allowance having been made with these on arriving at the money rates of assessment charged on their lands. The Swatantram payable by the ryot under these circumstances is a yearly sum of two annas in each rupee of the Government assessment; this amount being held to represent the old average rate of 3 per cent. of the gross produce of the year. These fees are recorded by the Government in the land-revenue registers, and their collection is left to the mirasidars themselves. The total amount in the Chingleput District is very small, but the right is tenaciously held to, and represents what was in former days a highly important institution. There are some mirasi Swatantrams in Tinnevelly, and possibly also in other districts, but Government has taken no steps to recognize them. It should be mentioned that the word mirasi means nothing beyond hereditary right, and that it is often applied to other rights besides the special right now under mention; it is applied, for instance, in the north to hereditary rights to village offices.

Unassigned lands within villages.

The unassigned land still in the possession of the State consists of all land which is not included in any zemindari, ryots' holding, or other land already given out by Government for occupation. If it lies, however, within the boundaries of a village, certain prescriptive rights are conceded to the villagers of that particular village, probably as a relic of the old village communal system, in the way of preferential claim to occupy; and this distinguishes the case for the purposes of the present classification from that of unassigned land not so situated. Unassigned land within a village will be either of the assessed class or the unassessed class. The mode in which assessed lands are applied for and taken up in the first instance has already been described. The unassessed land of a village is also at the disposal of the Government acting in trust for the interests of the village community. Subject to the instructions of the Government officers, certain portions are reserved for the gratuitous and communal use of the villagers, as the tanks, streets, channels, threshing-floor, burial-ground, cattle-stand, &c.; while in all cases except in the town of Madras and some places on the West Coast, a house-site, and a backyard with permission to cultivate garden produce in it, are provided gratuitously for each

family. The addition to or subtraction from the area of village-site is provided for by fixed rules. The unassessed waste lands of a village, which are not yet assigned, and which are not reserved for these special purposes, are offered for sale in convenient lots free of assessment, and subject only to local taxes. In Tanjore and Madras there are no such lands to be sold, and on the Nilgiri and Shevaroy Hills and in the Wynad the arrangements in nearly all cases fall under the head next to be mentioned. The following are the upset prices fixed for each district and lands are made over to the highest bidder above that price :—

Districts.	Forest Land.	Open Land.
Ganjam	2½ Rs. an acre ...	5 Rs. an acre.
Vizagapatam	5 „ do. ...	For all kinds.
Cuddapah	5 „ do. ...	2½ Rupees.
Kurnool	10 „ for black cotton soil.	5 Rs. for all qualities of soil.
Nullamallays	5 Rs. an acre ...	...
North Arcot	5 „ do. ...	2½ Rs. an acre.
Trichinopoly	5 „ do. ...	2½ „ do.
Madura, Pulnis	10 „ do. ...	5 „ do.
Do. in the plains	5 „ do. ...	2½ „ do.
Tinnevelly, Hill ranges	10 „ do. ...	5 „ do.
Do. in the plains, all kinds	2½ „ do. ...	...
Coimbatore (except Nilgiris)	5 „ do. ...	2½ Rs. an acre.
Salem (except Shevaroys)	5 „ do. ...	5 „ do.
South Canara, Hill ranges	10 „ do. ...	5 „ do.
Do. plains	5 „ do. ...	2½ „ do.
Godavari*	2½ „ do. ...	For all kinds.
Kistna		
Nellore	5 „ do. ...	2½ Rs. per acre.
South Arcot	5 „ do. ...	2½ „ do.
Malabar	5 „ per acre for Ponum land.	10 Rs. per acre for the more open and level lands, exclusive of Wynad.

No lot within a village is allowed to exceed 10 acres except under orders of Government, but one person may bid for contiguous lots. The lots are as far as practicable in parallelograms. In selling the land the existing and customary rights of Government, of other proprietors, and of the public in existing roads and paths, and in streams running through or bounding the lands are carefully reserved, and when the sale is completed and money paid, a formally drawn up title-deed is granted to the purchaser by Government. The land is surveyed and demarcated before the sale, and its cost is borne out of the sale-money if there be any purchaser, and if there be no purchaser by the first applicant at whose instance the survey has been undertaken. The first applicant has in all cases to make a deposit covering the cost of survey. Due notice is given to the public before sale, and any claims put forward are disposed of on their merits. The Government can of course alienate the unassessed land, if they wish, by putta or on cowle in the ordinary way, instead of selling the land in the manner just described. This is indeed in practice almost the only course as far as land in the plains is concerned. The rules apply

* The delta lands are excepted from the ordinary operation of the rules.

virtually only to hilly tracts, there being no stretches of unassessed waste in the plains.

Other unassigned lands.

Unassigned land outside the limits of any village as defined by Custom or the Survey Department is absolutely at the disposal of Government. Such portions of land are very limited on the plains, which are fully occupied by village communities, but they abound on the hill ranges where the indigenous tribes have established only a very partial occupation, and where general occupation is only just springing up. The alienation of lands lying outside villages will fall in a few cases under the rules described in the last paragraph. On the Nilgiris and Shevaroys, and in the Wynad, however, there is a special provision that there shall be no upset price except the cost of demarcation and survey, and that the lands shall be liable to assessment. Thus forest lands are free of assessment for five years on the Nilgiris and for three years in the Wynad, after which they are assessed at Rupees 2 per acre. Grass-land is liable to an assessment of 8 annas per acre from the date of appropriation. On the Shevaroy Hills all lands are liable to a uniform rate of 1 rupee per acre from the date they are taken up. In any of these cases the annual assessment may be redeemed at 25 years' purchase as already mentioned.

Tenures other than those under Government.

In a ryotwari country the most important considerations connected with land tenures are those which concern the relations of Government with persons holding immediately from it. The system of tenancy under such land-holders is however fully developed, and is even a matter in which Government is concerned, the interference of the Revenue officials between land-holder and tenant being often required under the law. In the districts on the East Coast lands are rented out by the land-holders either for a fixed annual payment in money, or for a share in the produce, which is generally half. Ordinarily dry and garden lands are rented for money and irrigated lands for a share in the produce. Except in large zemindaries, where rights have grown up from long possession, private tenants as a rule are tenants at will, and the leases are from year to year.

Tenancies on West Coast.

On the West Coast tenancies are more permanent and lands are generally leased out for a number of years. In South Canara tenants are of two kinds, Mulgueni and Chalgueni. The mulguenies are permanent tenants under the mulavargdar or landlord, paying a fixed and invariable rent. These tenancy rights have been for the most part obtained from the landlord as grants in perpetuity on the payment of a fine and on condition of paying annually a specified rent. Such tenants cannot be ousted except for non-payment of rent, and even in this case not till they have been fully recompensed by the landlord for the permanent improvements they may have made on the

lands. Subject to payment of rent they are at liberty to sub-rent, mortgage, or sell their interest, and are rather a description of subordinate landlords than mere tenants. On failure of heirs the title lapses to the landlord. In granting land on mulgueni tenure conditions are now often imposed which are never found in the ancient deeds, *e.g.*, that the right shall not be alienable, and that on the rent falling into arrears, or the trees standing on the land being wilfully destroyed, the lease shall be forfeited. The chalguenies are temporary ryots under the mulavargdars or mulguenies; their lease is for a limited term, usually one year, or even at will. In the case of these tenants the landlord has the right to raise the rent or oust the tenants whenever he pleases, when no period is fixed, after however reimbursing him for all permanent improvements made by him. Practically the tenants are seldom ousted unless they are heavily in arrears. In some large estates there is an intermediary tenancy, when the tenants have no written leases but are in practice treated as mulguenies. The rents of mulguenies and chalguenies are paid either in money or a certain quantity of grain, and never by a share of the crop as in other parts of the Presidency. In Malabar the tenures under which lands are held by tenants are Kanom, Panayam, Kuyikanom, and Verumpattom. In the first two cases the tenant has some pecuniary interest in the land. In the case of Kanom the rent is paid to the jenmi after allowing the tenant a deduction on account of the interest on the sum advanced and the Government revenue of the land. This kind of case generally extends over a period of 12 years, on the expiration of which it is renewed or revoked according as the jenmi and the tenant are on terms good or bad with each other. If the deed is renewed the jenmi is entitled to a fee or allowance calculated at 20 per cent. or more on the amount originally advanced. The sum so paid will not be shown in the deeds, nor will it be returned to the tenant at any time. If the jenmi desires to resume the land, he has to make over to the tenant the whole of the deposit money and the customary value of any improvements which may have been effected by the tenant. This cannot be done before the expiration of the term of 12 years. If meanwhile the land deteriorates through the neglect of the tenant, he shall have to give compensation to the jenmi for the damage thus sustained. In the case of Panayam, land is given possession of as security for a certain amount advanced. Rent is paid to the jenmi after deducting the interest on the sum advanced at the rate specified in the deed. In some cases when the deed provides that the mortgagee should pay the Government revenue, a sum on this account is also deducted from the rent payable to the jenmi. When there is no period prescribed in the deed, the jenmi may whenever he likes take back the land on payment to the

mortgagee of the sum advanced. These mortgagees are not generally allowed to make improvements on the land. Unoccupied waste parambas are leased on Kuyikanom right generally for 12 years, and sometimes for longer periods, for the purpose of raising buildings and plantations thereon; when the land is returned to the jenmi on the expiration of the term the value of improvements made by the tenant is paid to him. In this as well as the two foregoing cases the right possessed by the tenants on the lands held by them is transferable. The death of either tenant or landlord does not affect the lease when there are surviving members in the family of either. Another kind of lease called Verumpattom or simple lease is generally for one year, and sometimes for longer periods, and is terminable according to the terms shown in the deed. A rent, generally two-thirds of the produce of the land, is annually paid by the tenant to the landlord. In the case of leases for longer periods than one year the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain period not exceeding one year. The tenant receives no interest for the amount thus advanced, but on the termination of the lease the said amount is either repaid to the tenant or credit given him for the same against the rent due by him. There is also another kind of lease known as Undaruthi, under which the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain number of years and the land is let out to the tenant for the same period. The tenant has no more payments to make to the landlord. When the period expires the land is returned to the landlord. This kind of lease is generally applicable to parambas and plantations.

Private dealings in land.

The Government are not concerned in any way in transactions connected with land other than those already mentioned. It may be observed, however, that private mortgages are exceedingly common. Sums of money are frequently advanced upon landed security, the condition being generally that the mortgagee shall enter and enjoy the land for a definite period, though sometimes it is arranged that the mortgager shall hold as a tenant of the mortgagee during the term, and sometimes the lands are hypothecated simply. Sub-mortgages are frequently made on the East Coast. It is not customary for an outgoing mortgagee to claim compensation for improvements. Private sales of land again take place, but by no means so frequently. Mortgages are most numerous on the West Coast, especially in Malabar, for reasons already given. It is there considered disgraceful to sell absolutely the jenm right, *i.e.*, birth-right or proprietorship. There are several kinds of Malabar mortgages, the principal being Otti and Adima Jenm. The peculiarity of the latter mortgage is that the sum borrowed is not mentioned in the deed, and that its use is confined to Rajas, Numburies, and heads of villages. In South Canara land and produce are separately mortgaged. If the land itself is mortgaged no

interest is demanded. The mortgager is sometimes permitted to reside upon the estate and allowed to cultivate a small portion in the capacity of a tenant, but the mortgagee pays the Circar rent and transacts the whole business of the estate as if he were the proper owner. The mortgage bond always contains a clause that as soon as the sum borrowed is repaid the land is to be returned to the mortgager, the latter paying the expenses of all improvements. A certain portion of the produce of estates is frequently mortgaged for the discharge of interest on debts. In this case it is stipulated that a certain quantity of rice is to be paid annually, but that the person receiving the rice shall be allowed no interference with the estate. Should the mortgager fail in the payment, the land itself is to be made over to the mortgagee. The first of these Canara mortgages is termed Bogiadhy or living mortgage, the other Toradoovoo or dead mortgage.

Number of landed proprietors.

The number of persons who own property and who are independent of labor, as returned in the census schedules, is 176,580, or 1·1 per cent. of the male population. They are most numerous in the Tanjore District, where 7·7 per cent. of the males are so entered. In the Godavari District this class forms 3 per cent. of the population, while in Tinnevelly and Coimbatore only 0·04 and 0·02 per cent. are so returned. The Brahmins figure out of all proportion to any other class as holders of property; 64,545, or 11·7 per cent. of their numbers, being included under this head. The Kshatriyas have 3·1 per cent. The Chetties, who have their capital mostly laid out in trade, have only 0·5 per cent. The Vellalers or cultivating castes have only 1·6 per cent., but many of these are wealthy, though they hold their lands only on ryotwari tenure. The writer or accountant castes are considerable holders of property in the districts of Vizagapatam and Tanjore, where 22·4 and 31·4 per cent. respectively of their numbers are so classed.

(*c*).—The Collection of the Revenue.

Amount of land revenue.

The following list shows the total collections of land revenue in this Presidency for the last fifteen official years, taking £1 to be equal to 10 rupees. In 1866-67 there were only eleven months, because the date of commencement of the next year was altered from the 1st May to the 1st April:—

	£
1861-62	4,112,588
1862-63	4,206,498
1863-64	4,296,535
1864-65	4,181,162
1865-66	4,291,766
1866-67	3,635,509

	£
1867-68	4,239,705
1868-69	4,058,757
1869-70	4,476,056
1870-71	4,393,351
1871-72	4,435,341
1872-73	4,688,448
1873-74	4,446,693
1874-75	4,632,063
1875-76	4,539,657
1876-77	3,296,575
1877-78	3,494,884
1878-79	4,948,524

Ratio of land revenue to produce, &c.

It is impossible to exhibit, with any approach to accuracy, the ratio of the Imperial Land Revenue to the actual gross produce of the whole country and the net assets of land. No information exists as to the actual gross produce of lands paying land revenue to Government, nor is it possible to collect such information. Though the land-tax was imposed, theoretically at least, on a share of the gross produce of the land, this share or its commuted value has varied greatly in different districts and at different times. The principle on which the land-tax of ryotwari districts is at present undergoing revision and re-settlement, preceded by a scientific survey, is that it should in no case exceed 40 per cent. of the gross produce in the case of lands for which irrigation is provided at Government cost, or one-third of the gross produce in the case of lands not so irrigated. These proportions are found to be nearly equal to half the net produce. If all the land were ryotwari it might be roughly assumed that the revenues amounted to half the net produce, but much of it is held at a favorable quit-rent or permanently settled, and in these cases the sum paid to Government bears no fixed proportion to the produce. The rate per acre of the land-tax on ryotwari land varies very widely in the different districts. In those where the new survey and re-settlement have been introduced the rate varies from 6*d.* to £1 4*s.*, and the number of rates for a whole district does not exceed 35. In districts where the land assessment is still imposed as at the beginning of the century, the rate on irrigated land is occasionally as high as £3 10*s.* and that on unirrigated land as high as 9*s.* The minimum rates on both kinds of land in these districts are fractions of a shilling, and the total number of rates in a district is as large as 885. Taking an average of the whole Presidency, the rate per acre does not exceed 2*s.* 3*d.* on unirrigated land or 9*s.* 6*d.* on irrigated land.

Further particulars as to land-revenue.

Appendix Statement No. VI gives various particulars regarding the land-revenue and land-cesses therewith allied, calculated for a recent average fasli year. The following abstract shows incidences per acre and per head calculated for the same period, and compared with other parts of British India :—

	Per Acre of gross Area.	Per Acre of revenue-paying cultivable Area.	Per Acre of revenue-paying cultivated Area.	Per adult Male Agriculturist.	Per Head of Total Population.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
1. Bengal and Assam	0 4 8	...	...	3 5 6	0 9 10
2. North-West Provinces ...	0 14 8	1 7 6	1 14 6	8 1 7	1 8 10
3. Ajmere	0 3 8	...	...	...	1 4 2
4. Oude	0 14 8	1 4 7	1 12 3	...	1 4 0
5. Punjab	0 5 2	0 10 11	1 2 9	...	1 3 2
6. Central Provinces	0 1 10	0 3 8	0 7 2	8 7 10	0 12 6
7. Berar	0 7 8	...	...	11 15 2	2 6 5
8. Mysore	0 6 11	1 7 10	1 10 0	10 14 3	1 7 8
9. Coorg	0 3 6	1 10 3	2 12 10	20 2 10	1 10 11
10. British Burmah	0 1 3	1 1 8	2 2 1	11 13 0	1 10 2
11. Bombay	0 6 4	0 14 3	1 2 1	17 11 8	1 14 11
12. Madras	0 9 2	1 8 6	1 13 2	*6 13 6 †8 12 6	1 8 11

The incidence of rent, that is to say, the incidence of all payments to Government, and to other landlords if any, in the Presidency of Madras may be taken as Rupees 2·2 per cultivated acre and 2-2-4 per head of population. Appendix Statement No. VII shows the land-revenue demand per acre, divided under the heads of dry and wet land.

The demand on permanently settled estates.

The land-revenue demand on all Zemindaries, Mootahs and other proprietary estates is fixed once for all, and no remissions are granted for loss of crop or other reasons. There is, therefore, no special yearly investigation and settlement as in the case of Ryotwari holdings. Slight variations, however, occasionally occur. For instance lands forming part of a Zemindari are sometimes taken up by Government for public works. Again the collection of Government quit-rents on Inams situated in the Zemindaries is sometimes transferred to the Zemindars, who add the amount to their peishcush less 10 per cent. for the trouble of collecting. In such cases the necessary adjustments are made by the Collectors and reported to the Board of Revenue. Water-rates are also charged on Zemindari lands when water is used from sources of irrigation newly created by Government. The charge is made only on lands actually irrigated every year; but where the Zemindars consent, a composition is made with them for a term of years. Where existing works have been superseded by the new works, full allowance is made for the area previously irrigated by the former. For instance in the case of the Nedavole Zemindari in the Godavari, where the Government anicut works have obstructed the Zemindar's ancient sources of irrigation, the estate has been allowed to irrigate under the anicut channels free of charge 25,881 acres of land, which was formerly irrigated, or considered capable of being irrigated. The charges for water-rate go under the general technical head "Miscellaneous Revenue." The jumma or peishcush paid by Zemindars has

* Adult above 12 years. † Adult above 20 years.

usually been fixed in the first instance at two-thirds of the gross estimated collections from the cultivator.

The demand on Inam lands.

The whole question of the demand on Inam lands would naturally be treated here. Technically however, it is only the quit-rent on whole Inam villages, or "Shrotriems" as these are called, that is treated as a separate item, quit-rent on other or "Minor" Inams falling under the head Miscellaneous Land-revenue. The quit-rent on Inam villages is a fixed revenue, and no remissions, as a rule, are granted. Variations will however occur in the same way as in Zemindaries on account of lands being taken up by the Government for public purposes, or on account of water-rate, &c.; or again in the event of the holder relinquishing land. The quit-rent on Inam lands is usually called jodi in cases where it represents the old quit-rent as opposed to that recently imposed by the Inam Commission.

Quit-rents on building sites.

The quit-rents derived from building sites fall naturally for mention here. They are grouped, however, technically under Land-revenue Miscellaneous, and will be explained hereafter.

The demand in ryotwari holdings.

The actual rate at which the land is to be assessed under Ryotwari is fixed for a period of thirty years by the Revenue Settlement Department. But the ryot has the liberty, as already explained, of contracting or extending his holdings; and the Government undertake to grant remissions of land revenue, and assume the right to make extra charges under certain circumstances. There are therefore considerable variations from year to year to be attended to at the yearly settlement of accounts. The ryotwari settlement is formed by adding to the assessment of the holdings (1) the charge on account of second-crop cultivation, and (2) water-tax on ryotwari lands; and deducting therefrom (1) the assessment of waste remitted, (2) occasional remissions, (3) fixed remissions, and (4) deductions on account of village establishments and sundry other purposes. Sundry items classed as Miscellaneous revenue are afterwards added to the demand.

—The annual Jummabundy.

The Jummabundy just mentioned generally takes place after December, by which time most of the important crops have been harvested and most of the changes likely to take place in holdings are ascertained. The different places where it is to be conducted, mostly four or five in each taluk, are previously notified, the village officers concerned are summoned, and ryots who have any representations to make are invited to attend. The settlement officer is usually the revenue officer in charge of the revenue division. It is the duty of the Tahsildar to see that all the village accounts are ready before the date fixed for the Jummabundy, and this is usually carried out by causing the Carnams to come to the taluk cutcherry two or three weeks in advance and there finish whatever is incomplete in their accounts. The principal

accounts which the Carnam brings with him to the Jummabundy are the Adangal, No. 4 of the village accounts, or account against each field, taking the fields according to the peimash or latest survey; the rain-account, No. 2 B, or account of supply of irrigation-water; and the statement of monthly cultivation, No. 1, or account of cultivation in each field, used to check the Adangal. Arrived at the taluk cutcherry the Carnam prepares the different extracts required for that cutcherry or for the settlement officer himself. When the accounts are ready the settlement officer proceeds to the different stations already fixed, and passes orders on the accounts, in the presence as far as possible of the inhabitants of each village. The statements placed before the settlement officer vary in different districts, but the following may be taken as a sample list:—No. 8 of the village accounts, or Vajâpatti, that is to say list of remissions proposed by the Carnam in accordance with the established rules; a water-rate statement for each village, that is to say recommendations for the charge or remission of water-rate; a taluk statement for orders in cases of unauthorized cultivation of either poramboke or assessed waste, as also in cases of excess or deficient extent found on measurement; a taluk statement, for orders in cases arising out of cowles, and other special puttas; No. 6 of the village accounts, for orders as to the rate of assessment in cases of poramboke land being newly taken up after permission; and a taluk statement showing miscellaneous cases sent up for orders by the Tahsildar. In the last column but one of all these statements are entered remarks and recommendations by the Tahsildar. For instance as regards wet land remission he will enter in abstract the general particulars of the block of irrigation to which the field in question belongs; thus total holdings and total left waste under that branch of irrigation, how many months' supply the tank (if it is a tank) is built for, and how many months' water it has received; whether the population has diminished or not since last year; whether the holder of the field has any special claims for indulgence; and any other matters which may occur. The settlement officer writes his final orders in the last column. The statements, as disposed of for each village by the settlement officer, are taken away to the taluk cutcherry, and the orders entered are there put in force. The next step is for the Carnam to prepare the Chittah, No. 5, in the village accounts, or ledger of accounts against each putta; this evidently consists merely in taking out entries from the field register or Adangal, as modified by the orders of the settlement officer, and booking them against the different puttas. After the chittah is prepared it is checked by the taluk gumastah, and is signed and stamped by the Tahsildar. In practice a great part of the chittah will be already written up before the Carnam comes to Jummabundy. From the chittah as finally

signed in the taluk cutcherry, the Carnam writes up all such puttas as require renewal or to be modified or newly issued, and these are checked by the taluk gumastahs and signed and stamped by the settlement officer. According to the usual practice, no putta is renewed or modified or newly issued except at the time of Jummabundy, even though sanction for such proceedings may have been given during the current work of the preceding months of the year. Renewal of a putta can only be necessary when either the old putta has been lost, or when it is full and has no room for further entries. As a rule the yearly changes take the form of modifications, that is to say of new entries entered under the old entries, with a signature for the new entries. Changes in a putta are necessitated, either in order to change the name, the last holder having died (poûthi) or having relinquished (sôthi); or in order to change the account items, the water-rate or land-assessment or special cess or other item being different this year from last (jâst and cammi.) When land is newly taken up (darghast), entirely new puttas have to be issued. Properly speaking the Carnam should obtain at the hands of the ryots concerned all old puttas which require renewal or modification, and bring those to the taluk cutcherry to be destroyed; but this is not always done, the putta of the latest date being held to supersede all previous puttas. The puttas after being signed by the settlement officer are handed back to the Carnam, and it is his duty to distribute them to the ryots. The fluctuations involved in the proceedings of the yearly settlement are not allowed to interfere with the current collections. By rights a ryot must up till the date of Jummabundy pay his kists as if the demand was the same as for last year; but in practice amounts which are known to be under decision are allowed by the monigars to stand over. Similarly when a transfer is known to have taken place, collections will in practice be made in advance of Jummabundy from the new holder. When the Jummabundy is completely finished certain other abstract accounts are prepared by the Carnam, which need not here be particularized. Cultivation made after the Jummabundy, but appertaining to the fasli then in question, appears under Land-revenue Miscellaneous, and is treated as a separate item of revenue. Remissions granted after Jummabundy are similarly not shown in the accounts of the year, but the amounts involved are written off the accounts as irrecoverable with the sanction of Government in the following year.

—Standard rates of assessment.

The standard rates of assessment are determined by the Revenue Settlement Department, as hereafter described. Briefly speaking the lands are first classified according to their soils, and the grain values of each soil are determined by actual experiments taken over a large area and with the help of other extraneous information. From the

grain value thus determined a deduction is made on account of unfavorable seasons and cultivation expenses, and the remainder, which represents the net produce, is halved. From this half a small deduction is again made on account of unprofitable areas, and the remainder is commuted into money at a fixed rate, which represents the average value of the grain for a series of years sufficiently long to balance the ordinary fluctuations of seasons and other temporary causes. The money-rates thus obtained approximate as nearly as possible to half of the value of the net produce.

—Second crop cultivation.

In fixing the standard rates of assessment the irrigated lands are presumed to yield but one crop, and when a second crop is raised on them with the aid of Government water half the standard rate is charged in addition. In some cases however this charge has already been commuted at the old peimash or by the Settlement Department into a fixed payment consolidated with the ordinary assessment, and this consolidated sum is then paid whether the second crop is raised or not. The object of the latter arrangement is to save Government the trouble of instituting a scrutiny into the extent of second-crop cultivation each year, and to save the ryots from interference on the part of petty revenue officials. To make the arrangement acceptable to the ryot, the composition rates are somewhat lower than those charged when the payment for second crop is left optional. The ryots do not make any payment if the second crop in question is raised without the aid of Government water. For instance, a dry crop raised as second crop in land classed as irrigated is not liable to any charge. It happens but seldom that private irrigation is applied to wet lands. In the case of unirrigated lands the ryot is competent to raise any number of crops, for though the soil has been used more than once in the year Government water has not been supplied to it. The charge for second-crop cultivation is in fact a water-rate, though not so called ; it has really no reference to the more or less frequent use of the soil. Irrigation under private wells is not as a rule liable to any charge, but wells within the ayacut are considered to draw water from the tank and a charge is therefore made. It has already been mentioned that second-crop assessment is charged where necessary on irrigated Inam lands.

—Water-tax.

Water-tax technically so called is charged whenever lands classed and assessed as unirrigated are irrigated by the aid of Government water. The rates vary with reference to the usage of the locality, to the character of the irrigation, to the time for which the irrigation is required, and to the nature of the crop raised ; and run from 8 rupees to 1½ rupees per acre. In the delta taluks of the Godavari and Kistna and in some of the taluks of Kurnool all the lands are assessed at dry rates, and the whole charge for water appears therefore under water-tax. Govern-

ment water-tax imposed on Inam lands, or in Zemindaries, does not come technically under this head, but under Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

—Waste remitted.

Under the head of Waste Remitted are technically included all deductions from the land-demand made on account of land left absolutely waste; that is, in which no crop has been put down. It is a remission of the full assessment, is made only where cultivation has been impossible on account of the usual supplies of Government water having been deficient or in flood, and is not given in the case of land classed as unirrigated. Any neglect to cultivate on the part of the holders invalidates the claim to remission.

—Occasional remissions.

Waste remitted is in reality an "occasional" remission, inasmuch as it depends on the season. Being however usually a large item it is treated technically as a separate head. The occasional remissions technically so-called include all remissions dependent on the nature of the season, other than that for absolute waste. They consist of the following items:—(1) shavi or withered crops; (2) panyboodthy or payamali, that is to say land flooded and injured by water; (3) palanastham or loss of produce; (4) thirvakammy or difference between wet and dry assessment; (5) fasalkammy or second crop not cultivated; (6) remissions allowed on the introduction of new rates of assessment; (7) miscellaneous remissions. Remissions under items 1 and 2 are as a rule granted on irrigated lands only when the crop is totally lost owing to either deficiency or excess of water, and provided only that such excess or deficiency has not been occasioned by any act or neglect of the person to whom the land belongs. Remissions for partial loss of crop under item 3 are only granted in districts which have not been settled by the Settlement Department; these also are confined to irrigated lands. In granting the remissions last named no attempt is made to estimate individual losses, but the remission is granted in the form of a certain percentage taken off from the assessment of the lands in which the crop is lost, the percentage being determined with reference to the extent of the average loss sustained in the adjacent tracts. Remissions are not granted on unirrigated lands except in very exceptional years and under very exceptional circumstances and with the previous sanction of the Board of Revenue. The remission under item 4 is granted when a dry crop is put down on land classed and assessed as irrigated, but which otherwise would have been left waste. In such cases the dry crop assessment alone is levied, and the difference between that and the assessment chargeable on irrigated land is remitted. The remission under item 5 is granted where the land is assessed for two crops, but it has not been possible to raise a second crop for want of water. This remission occurs chiefly in districts not yet visited by the Settlement Department, where the rates are high. In the districts

which have been settled by that department the collection of the whole assessment is enforced as a rule when the principal crop is raised, whether the second or inferior crop is raised or not. But if the principal crop fails or is not raised, and only an inferior crop is grown, then the second crop assessment is remitted. Remissions under item 6 are altogether of an exceptional character. They are granted with the special sanction of Government when any newly fixed rates of assessment are particularly high, and when their gradual introduction is considered desirable. The miscellaneous remissions consist of various sundry items, such as those granted on account of lands cultivated having been taken up for public works or for the Forest Department, on account of lands washed away by rivers, &c., &c.

—Fixed remissions.

"Fixed remissions" are remissions which are granted for reasons other than those relating to the season. They consist of the following items:—(1) Remission granted for labor involved in reclaiming lands. This is mostly granted for lands situated on a high level in consideration of the difficulty of bringing them under wet cultivation. (2) Remission granted on the ground that the standard rates in unsettled districts are too heavy. The old pymash assessments having in some districts been heavy, certain reductions were made in the rates of assessment. The difference between the old and reduced rates appears as remission. (3) Remission granted to privileged classes; that is to say, remissions allowed to certain classes of persons who by custom or caste are prevented from cultivating lands themselves. These are fast disappearing with the introduction of the new rates of settlement, which do not recognize any class privileges. (4) Remission granted on account of irrigation by lift. This is granted for cultivation raised on high level wet lands by baling or other mechanical contrivances. (5) Remission granted under the tope rules. As an encouragement to the formation of topes or small woods, persons are allowed to plant trees under certain conditions free of assessment for 20 years. At the end of that period the land is assessed if retained in possession of the planter, but left unassessed if the tope is thrown open to the public. The assessment remitted during the 20 years is shown under remissions. As a rule the land granted on these terms is one that has been waste for more than 10 years. If the trees are planted on land usually cultivated no remission is granted. (6) Remission granted for maintaining irrigation works. This is called technically "Dasbundum," and is an allowance made in the shape of remission of revenue in compensation for the construction of tanks, wells, and channels, and for the repairs of such works. (7) Remission on grass lands. Ryots in Coimbatore, and on a portion of the Nilgiris, are allowed to hold an extent equal to one-fourth of their holdings at one-fourth of the full assessment for purposes of pasture. The difference between the full

and quarter assessment is treated as remission so long as the land is allowed to lie fallow and actually used as pasture. When once cultivated it is charged with full assessment, and this is maintained whether the land is thenceforward cultivated or used for pasture again. No new lands are now granted under this tenure. (8) Cowle remissions. Lands which have been long lying waste, or which require outlay of capital or labor to bring them under cultivation, are allowed to be taken on easy terms for a number of years; they are either free of tax or subject to a favorable assessment, and the difference between the standard assessment and the assessment actually charged is shown under remissions. (9) Remission granted on forest lands taken up for cultivation in the Nilgiris and in Malabar. Forest lands taken up in the Nilgiris and in Wynad for coffee or other plantations are not charged with assessment for five and three years respectively in consideration of the preliminary expenses necessary for the plantations, and as a remunerative crop is rarely obtained until after the lapse of those periods. For the periods mentioned the assessment of the lands is shown under remissions. (10) Miscellaneous. This consists of various small items, such as landlord's share on escheated lands sold, remission of assessment in favor of pagodas, &c., &c.

—Sundry deductions.

Sundry Deductions, otherwise called Beriz Deductions, are in reality of two classes, though not so arranged technically. In the one case the principle is that the Government abandons a certain amount of the land-demand in consideration of the ryot discharging certain liabilities hitherto discharged by Government. Such are payments of fees or salaries to village servants and of stipends to Inamdars. In the other case certain sums which are due from the ryot, and which have been hitherto consolidated with the land-demand, are now separated from it, and the ryot is directed to pay them elsewhere. An example of the latter is the road-cess in the Kistna. The subtraction from the land-demand is a convenient way of adjusting accounts, and is an old practice in this Presidency. Sometimes a deduction will represent a transaction under both of the heads just mentioned; as for instance where a deduction on account of village service represents partly the sum hitherto contributed by the ryot and partly the sum granted by the Government. The amounts deducted are properly speaking paid by the ryots direct to the persons or authorities to whom they are due. But practically the village officers collect the amounts.

—The demand on the West Coast.

In speaking of West Coast tenures between Government and land-holders it was mentioned that in form the agreement was a ryotwari agreement. The details of the demand made, however, show the peculiarity of the situation. Thus the average assessment in Malabar is Rupees 1-9-5 for dry land and Rupees 3-0-3 for wet land, compared to an average for the whole Presidency of Rupees 1-1-0 for the former

and Rupees 5-9-3 for the latter. The excess in the case of dry land is due to the fact that all the more valuable permanent garden produce is classed in Malabar under this head. The assessments, therefore, are very low and tacitly allow the existence of middlemen and of other interests besides those of Government. The wet cultivation exceeds that of any other district except Tanjore, and would, if assessed at the ordinary rates of other ryotwari districts, produce probably double the revenue. In Canara too ample provision is left for a landlord's share. The fiscal division of estates in Canara is noticeable. Bhurty means full or paying the entire Tharao demand. Kumbhurty means paying less than the full Tharao demand. The kumbhurty is again sub-divided into (*a*) Board Shifarish, or estates which owing to natural disadvantages never can be expected to pay the full demand, and are entered in the accounts as doubtful, but are practically treated as with reduced demand; (*b*) Tanki, or estates on which it is uncertain under present circumstances whether the full assessment will be leviable in the future and which are consequently kept under investigation and settled annually according to the circumstances of each case; this sub-division again includes a large proportion of estates (Kayam Kammi), on which a certain amount of assessment has been fixed according to their present capacity, but which may still be able to pay the full assessment hereafter; and (*c*) Waida, or estates which after a certain definite period will be able to pay the full demand, and will be required to do so. The settlement officer leaves Bhurty and Board Shifarish as he finds them, and settled in the lump; he deals with the Tanki at his discretion; and in the case of Waida there is usually an annual increment, to be decided by the settlement officer, by which the estate is to be brought up to Bhurty and Kumbhurty. Practically the same village agency is employed on the West Coast as in other parts of the country. It should be mentioned that the low assessments of Malabar have proved a serious difficulty in levying cesses which are proportioned to the assessment. The important Local Fund Cess is a case in point and yields a very poor revenue. In Zemindaries the Local Fund Act has specially provided for assessing the cess on the rents paid by ryots to Zemindars and taking the amount from the Zemindar, and the application of this to Malabar would give a higher cess-revenue. But this has only quite recently been legalized. One of the principal difficulties in this case is the decision as to who is in such case the person to be dealt with analogous to the Zemindar, land-ownership being on the West Coast in a very confused state.

—The demand under Amany.

In some localities wet crops are still divided between the Government and the ryot under the Amany system. The share of Government in the produce varies according to usage, but in the majority of cases

it is 50 per cent. of the gross produce *minus* fees paid to village servants. The crop is cut under the personal inspection of Government officers, and the gross produce is divided by actual measurement. After division the Government share, which is called the Rajabhogam or Melvaram, is sold and the proceeds are carried to the credit of Government. It will be understood that the settlement in these cases is still with the individual ryot, on the ryotwari system. The Amany method of settlement and collection represents the traditional method peculiar to the Hindus under their own rulers. Apart from the machinery of collection, it will be seen that it differs from the method of the English Government in that it settles on the basis of dividing the gross instead of the net produce. Amany is still a favorite system between Zemindars and their tenants, and estates coming under the Court of Wards frequently bring this mode of settlement with them. The British Government have not encouraged it. It would be impossible at the present day to keep in hand the large establishment that would be necessary. Moreover the ryots are said to dislike Amany, as the crops cannot be taken in until measured by the Government official, and have often to lie on the ground till damaged. There are at the present moment only seven Government villages in the Presidency in which division of the produce takes place, namely, five in Madura and two in Tanjore. The total revenue of these is Rupees 6,000.

The demand under Ooloogoo differs from that under ordinary ryotwari in this, that the Government dues vary to a certain extent with the current prices of grain. The grain is commuted for a money-value, but not for an absolutely fixed value. The commutation rate is founded on the price of past years, but all increase of price of over 10 per cent. above the standard is added to the demand, while all decrease of more than 5 per cent. under the standard is remitted to the ryot. If the ryots are dissatisfied with any year's settlement they can claim division of produce. There are therefore no remissions on account of the season. Ooloogoo holdings obtain now in only one small hamlet in Tanjore, the revenue of which is Rupees 3.

—The demand under Ooloogoo.

Revenue due to Government by renters of estates is collected in the same way as that due by any ordinary ryot under the ryotwari system, with the difference that the lands in the villages rented are not sold for arrears unless they are the property of the renters. The renter's right is saleable, but it is seldom sold as generally the sale of their personal property is sufficient to secure the revenue.

The demand in estates rented out.

Under the head of Land-Revenue Miscellaneous are included all charges pertaining to lands other than those held by ryots under the ryotwari system, or lands held by Government ryots under certain

Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

peculiar circumstances. They consist of the following items :—(1) Jodi on Sundry Inams. This is the quit-rent or favorable assessment charged on Inams smaller than a village at the time of the grant or by the Inam Commissioner. (2) Charge for water on Zemindari and Inam lands. This is a charge made for supplying irrigation to Zemindari and Inam lands from Government works. The charge is made only when the irrigation supplied is such as the landholders are not already entitled to in virtue of grants or original settlement. (3) Land cultivated but not included in the Jummabundy. This is the revenue brought to account after the annual settlement and issue of puttas, but belonging to the then current fasli. (4) Assessed land cultivated without Durkhast or permission. Assessed lands taken up without application and sanction are inquired into at the annual settlement and disposed of according to their merits. But if in any case inquiries cannot be completed within the year, or if puttas are delayed for any other cause, such lands are shown under this item. (5) Fees for service of revenue processes. This is the amount collected, in addition to the assessment, from revenue defaulters on whom processes are issued, to meet the cost of the establishment entertained for the purpose. (6) Revenue from rented villages. This is mainly derived from persons to whom villages have been rented out in consequence of some difficulty in introducing a ryotwari settlement. (7) Grazing-tax or grass-rent. This revenue is derived by the sale of grazing farms in villages, principally in the districts of Nellore, Kistna and Madura. The total amount in the Presidency is about Rupees 1,41,000. (8) Rent of islands situated in rivers. Lands in islands in rivers do not come under ryotwari settlement; they are leased out and this is the amount of their rental. (9) Tax on trees on unassessed lands. This consists of rent of palmyra trees, rent of fruit trees, and sale proceeds of trees. The trees are the scattered trees standing on lands not held under puttas. Persons holding palmyra trees under such a tax can only use or sell the fruit and leaf, the right to draw and sell the toddy being the perquisite of the Abkári contractor. (10) Quit-rent and ground-rent in the town of Madras. The houses and lands in the town of Madras are subject to a quit-rent. With the exception of the cases mentioned below under No. 17 there is nothing similar in the districts. Quit-rent in Madras is in fact a special form of land revenue. (11) Cultivation of Poramboke lands. This is the revenue charged on unassessed or reserved lands when improperly cultivated. (12) Rent of garden and topes which have become the property of Government. (13) Sale proceeds of unassessed waste lands sold by Government. (14) Revenue from hill villages. This revenue is derived by the cultivation of lands on the slopes of hills. The cultivation is not permanent and no puttas are therefore

issued. (15) Revenue derived from coir, the produce of Amendivi Islands attached to South Canara. In these islands cocoanut is nearly the only product, and no land assessment is collected. The islanders are compelled to sell all their coir to Government at a fixed rate, lower than the market rate. The Government sell and realize a profit. The arrangement is similar to the salt monopoly. (16) Excess collections over the demand. This is overpayment erroneously made by the ryots and which is to be eventually refunded. (17) Quit-rent on bungalows and gardens. In some special cases lands are given on favorable assessment for buildings, instead of being treated as ordinary ryotwari lands. (18) Commission on private estates under the management of the Court of Wards. A commission of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is levied by Government on the revenue of the estates managed by the Court of Wards. (19) Water-tax on summer-crops cultivated at the close of the preceding fasli, and not then brought to account. (20) Revenue fines imposed on revenue servants. (21) Revenue from sequestered Inams, or the assessment of Inam lands placed under attachment for various reasons, for instance the non-appearance of Inamdars for settlement. This item also includes the assessment of Service Inams kept under attachment pending the revision of village establishments. The assessment credited to Land-revenue Miscellaneous temporarily though eventually transferred to Village Service Fund. (22) Cultivation of jungle tracts newly cleared by burning in South Canara. The cultivation is not permanent and therefore puttas are not issued annually. (23) Recoveries of cost of Survey establishment lent to private estates under Court of Wards. (24) Russums or fees collected from Zemindaries, &c. These are payments made by certain Zemindars according to usage in addition to their peishcush. (25) Tax on house-sites and backyards exceeding the limit allowed. (26) Chunam shell-rent, or rent derived by farming out the right of collecting shells for making chunam. (27) Charge for water on miscellaneous Jeroyati lands, otherwise Ayan lands, otherwise non-Inam lands. This is the charge made for water on lands for which puttas are not issued, but which are included under Miscellaneous Revenue. (28) Chank-shell farms. This is the license fee paid for fishing chanks. (29) Revenue deposits forfeited. Deposits are forfeited for various causes. For instance, a purchaser in a revenue sale deposits a certain amount, but if he fails to complete the sale by paying the full sum within the prescribed time he forfeits his deposit. (30) Revenue from Amany villages. (31) Sundry items. These consist of various small items too numerous to mention.

Special cases of assessment.

A few special points remain for notice. On special products a special assessment was formerly levied; this is now abandoned, and the land alone is taxed and not its products. Tank-beds may not be

cultivated; if a ryot improperly occupies, remissions are refused, or prohibitory assessment is imposed, to compel him to relinquish. For river-bed cultivation the same remark applies; there are no special rules. When wet land becomes no longer irrigable from one cause or another, the Collector has authority to class it as dry. When land is found on measurement to be in excess of what it was assumed to be in the register, 10 per cent. margin is allowed, but if it is over that the assessment is revised, and the amount exceeding the 10 per cent. is charged for. The same rule is followed in granting remissions; when a deficiency is found to exist as compared with the register; that is to say, remission is granted only on such portion of land as is more than 10 per cent. below the registered amount. In the case of lands under private tanks the ayacut is as a rule entirely held by the owner of the tank, and he pays a special rate for the entire area, viz., Rupees $2\frac{1}{2}$ per acre in most districts. If a portion of the ayacut is held by the ryots, the charge for water supplied must be the subject of private arrangement. No additional charge is made on account of irrigation under jungle-streams and natural pools, provided that Government has incurred no expense in their improvement, and provided that the use of water does not interfere with the supply to any Government work.

Land revenue according to the land from which it is derived.

Almost all the land revenue is derived from the lands elsewhere described as assessed lands. The following items however and some others are realized from the unassessed waste:—(1) Tax or rent of scattered trees; (2) Chank rent; (3) Chunam rent; (4) Fish-rent; (5) Rent on lime quarries; (6) Quit-rent on land for houses in the town of Madras and the district of South Canara. These all fall under the technical head of Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

Assessment on lands containing minerals.

Applications for mining are rare, and the question of assessment on lands so applied for is treated specially in each case. The question of the right of landholders to mineral wealth obtained from the soil is under discussion, and possibly resort will be had to legislation.

Revision of Ayacut.

In many cases the so-called irrigable ayacut under a work of irrigation is not really irrigable. In some cases on the other hand a larger extent of land is irrigated than is registered as irrigable. The Settlement Department in some districts and Collectors in others are now engaged in revising ayacuts with reference to the actual capacity of the tanks and the extent cultivated within the last five years. Particular cases are seldom dealt with in the ordinary course of the land administration.

Sub-division of assessment.

The mode in which the sub-division of landed property is permitted has been already described, and it has been mentioned that the transactions are not valid against Government until the assessment on

the sub-divided portions has been adjusted by the Collector. The principle observed in all cases is that the original peishcush or assessment is not to be disturbed, but is to be taken as a total and rateably sub-divided according to the new sub-divisions. In Zemindaries and Inam lands the new proportions are based on the present estimated value of the lands, and in ryotwari holdings they are based on the assessment already fixed on such lands.

Payments of land revenue.

The peishcush of large Zemindaries is generally paid into the Collector's treasury, and that of small Zemindaries and Inam villages into the taluk treasury. Other items of land revenue are paid in the villages to the monigar. Payments are not collected, but brought by the parties. The money is received in the first instance by the monigar, who gives a receipt for it in a prescribed form. According to the rules the carnam also should sign the receipt in token of having then and there made the corresponding entries in the village accounts. Where there are several villages however and several monigars to a single carnam, the latter cannot always be on the spot to sign the receipt taken away by the ryot. The monigar having received the money, goes to the carnam and has the sum entered in the day-book, No. 10 of the village accounts. The carnam subsequently credits the individual in the account kept in the name of different puttadars, No. 3 of the villag series, and also enters the item in the abstract Demand, Collection, and Balance statement, No. 11, which he keeps in the name of the different puttadars for his own information in the village. When this is completed he prepares an advice-note, or Irasal-nàmah, No. 12, for the use of the monigar, and the monigar despatches the money then and there with No. 3, No. 10, and No. 12 abovementioned, to the Tahsildar's treasury. No. 10 and No. 12 go in duplicate, No. 3 and one of the copies of Nos. 10 and 12 are initialled by the Taluk Sheristadar and returned by the bearer to the monigar. When the money is first brought in by the ryot it is the business of the shroff to examine the coin, and see that it is correct. The accounts here shown, when regularly kept, furnish the taluk officials with immediate information as to which ryots have paid to date and which ryots are in arrears, so that they can immediately after receipt of each remittance issue then and there, if they wish, the first demand-notice in coercive process. It is sometimes even the practice for the carnam to fill in and send up with the remittance a coercive process form for every ryot in arrears at that date. The remittances from the village to the taluk office take place generally once a month after the corresponding ryotwari kist has fallen due; but sometimes the remittances are made more frequently. During the month the cash collected is kept by the village monigar in his own house at his own risk. In the case of Zemindaries and other perma-

nently settled estates, the payments are made according to the varying instalments mentioned in the sannads, but in the case of all other revenue the following instalments are observed :—

Districts.	Proportion of Annual Tax payable by the 15th of each Month.								
	15th November.	15th December.	15th January.	15th February.	15th March.	15th April.	15th May.	15th June.	Total.
									ANNAS.
Ganjam	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	16
Vizagapatam...	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	16
Godavari	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	16
Kistna	2	4	4	4	2	...	...	...	16
Nellore	...	2	2	2	4	4	2	...	16
Cuddapah	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	16
Kurnool	2	4	4	4	2	...	...	...	16
Chingleput	...	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	16
Bellary	...	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	16
North Arcot	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	...	16
South Arcot	2	2	2	4	4	2	...	...	16
Tanjore { Kar	3	6	7	...	...	...	...	...	16
Tanjore { Samba	...	...	...	2	3	5	4	2	16
Tanjore { Dry	3	6	7	...	...	...	...	...	16*
Tanjore { Do.	...	...	...	2	3	5	4	2	16†
Tanjore { Do.	1	2	3	1	2	3	3	1	16‡
Trichinopoly	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	16
Madura	...	2	2	2	2	4	4	...	16
Coimbatore	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	...	16
Nilgiris	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	...	16
Tinnevelly	...	2	2	4	4	4	...	...	16
Salem	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	...	16
South Canara	...	...	4	4	4	2	2	...	16
Malabar	2	2	4	4	2	2	...	...	16

Advances to ryots.

Advances called *tuccavi* used to be made to Government ryots for mere cultivation expenses, but the system was found open to abuse and has now been given up. No advances to ryots are made at present except under the Land Improvement Act. (India No. XXVI of 1871.) Under this Act advances on interest at 6½ per cent. per annum are made by Government to landlords and tenants desiring to make improvements in their lands on certain conditions as to due execution of the work, and repayment of the advance. Works for which advances are made and the accounts kept on the works are to be open for inspection by Government officers at all times. If the persons who receive the advance fail to perform the conditions under which it was granted, the Collector has power to recover under the Act the whole advance or such portion as has been granted.

The acquisition of land for public purposes.

When land is needed for a public purpose or for the purposes of a company, it is usual in this Presidency to take it by an amicable arrangement with the owners, the procedure laid down in the Land Acquisition Act being applied only in cases where the owners will not

* On half the cultivation if the cultivation up to October is below 50 per cent., and on actual cultivation if more.

† On the remainder.

‡ On wet and dry lands in Kallugullage or joint-rented villages of Tiruturaipundi Taluk.

agree to reasonable terms, or where there is a doubt in regard to title. If the law is applied the procedure is as follows:—A declaration is first made under the signature of the Secretary to Government or other officer duly authorized that such and such land is required for public purposes; the Collector then gives notice to the public and to parties concerned, stating that the Government intends to take possession of the land, and that claims to compensation must be made to him on a date and at a place specified. On the date fixed the Collector inquires into the value of the land and determines the amount and tenders it to the person interested; if the parties agree to the amount, the matter is at once settled and the Collector takes possession of the land. If the offer is not accepted and the Collector is unable to agree with the parties, or if there is any question regarding the title of the parties interested, the Collector refers the matter to the Civil Court, which, with the aid of assessors, determines the amount of the compensation payable. In determining the compensation the market-value at the time of awarding compensation, and the damage, if any, sustained by reason of severing such land from the owners of other lands are taken into consideration, but not the urgency which has led to the acquisition, nor the disinclination of the party interested to part with the land acquired. An appeal is provided against the award made by the Court. Payment is made to the owner by the Collector according to the award, or if there has been an appeal according to the decision on such appeal; possession of the land is then taken. If land is required only temporarily, the Government directs the Collector to procure the occupation and use of the land for such term as may be necessary not exceeding three years. On the expiration of the term the land is restored to the owner, with such compensation as may be necessary for any damage done and not provided for by the original agreement. If the land becomes permanently unfit for use the Government takes the land as if it was permanently required for a public purpose or for a company. In case the Collector and the owner of the land differ as to the condition of the land at the expiration of the term, or to any matter connected with the agreement, the Collector refers the matter for the orders of the Court.

Coercive measures.

When land revenue due to Government falls into arrears it is recovered under Madras Act II of 1864 together with interest at 6 per cent. and costs of process, by the Collector or his deputy, by the sale of the defaulter's movable property including uncut crops or immovable property including buildings on land, or by execution against the person of the defaulter. In the case of Zemindars holding under a Sannad Mulkyat Istimrar, the personal property must, under the terms of the sannad, first be sold, and the land only in the event of the first measure not proving sufficient. In the case of other defaulters,

the Collector may at his discretion sell either the movable or immovable property or both. If there is any doubt as to ownership, the Collector will naturally attach the land in preference. Before any property is attached for arrears, due notice is given to the defaulter, and another notice is served previous to sale. Sometimes, though rarely, the arrear is realized by not selling the land, but by keeping it under Government management and appropriating the proceeds. Persons other than the defaulters who may be interested in the land can have the sale stopped by payment of the arrear. There is now no restriction as regards the distraint of implements of husbandry. The sale of land is at the discretion of the Collector, and he is not bound to recognize any transfers except such as have been registered in his office. The sale does not prevent the defaulter from collecting balances of rent due to him by under-tenants for periods anterior to the sale. Land may be purchased Benamee; that is, the defaulter himself or any of his friends may purchase it when put up for sale. The former law forbade this. The land revenue has the first claim on landed property against all other creditors, and the crops of an under-tenant are not protected, except that the latter has subsequent redress. When a purchaser buys land at a revenue sale, he does so taking the land free of all encumbrances; that is to say, land passing through a revenue sale (as opposed to a Civil Court sale) becomes purged of all previous claims, even including the Government assessment due to date. Certificates of sale are issued to the purchaser, and the Board of Revenue receive a statement of sales; no sanction to sales is now required except in the case of Zemindaries, and these require the sanction of Government. There is provision for enforcing the certificate and giving possession to the purchaser. In some cases Government buy the land for themselves. When the arrears cannot be liquidated by the sale of the property of the defaulter, and there is reason to believe that he is wilfully withholding payment of the arrears, or has been guilty of fraudulent conduct in withholding payment, the defaulter is liable to be arrested and imprisoned for a period not exceeding two years if the arrear exceeds 500 rupees, not exceeding six months if it is at that amount or below, and not exceeding three months if it is 50 rupees or below. Such imprisonment does not extinguish the debt. When the revenue is paid in kind the crop is not allowed to be removed until division has been made. The above procedure is applicable not only to arrears of land revenue, but to all advances made by Government, for cultivation or other purposes connected with the revenue, to all fees due to village servants employed in Revenue and Police duties, and to all cesses imposed upon the land. Process servers are as a rule specially paid peons; heads of villages are however bound to serve process also. The extent to which coercive process is employed

in the collection of the land-revenue is, on the whole, not large. There has certainly been a very large increase of late years in the number of legal processes issued for this object, but the fact is that formerly the law was not used, while coercion took place nevertheless. Moreover the provisions of the present law are so lenient that it suits the convenience of ryots to allow process to be issued though they intend ultimately to pay. The interest charged on arrears has been reduced by Act II of 1864 from 12 per cent. to 6 per cent., and the ryot now gains rather than loses pecuniarily by waiting for a better market, or leaving his money out at interest, while the process is running. Taking the absolute results, and without reference to the history of the working of the law, there are no grounds for dissatisfaction. In the recent Fasli 1282 recourse was had to coercive process for recovering land-revenue arrears amounting to £250,000. The ryotwari demand of that year was 4½ millions, so that the arrears were 5½ per cent. on the revenue. Of the £250,000 all were made good before sale except £45,000 or 1 per cent. of the demand. It may be said then that 95 per cent. of the land-revenue is realized without trouble, and that 4 per cent. more can be recovered with only the trouble of formally demanding it.

Recovery of private rents.

Zemindars, Shrotriemdars, Jaghiredars, Inamdars, and persons farming lands or land-revenue under Government, are authorized by Madras Act VIII of 1865 to recover their rents under a summary process, provided that the landlord and the tenant have exchanged puttas and muchilikas or written agreements in regard to the terms on which the land is to be held, and provided the summary powers are sought to be exercised within one year from the time when the rent becomes due. The Government, that is to say in these cases, assists the landholder to recover from his tenants. And it at the same time excludes the Civil Courts from jurisdiction. The landholders are allowed to exercise summary power even where no puttas and muchilikas are executed if both parties have agreed to dispense with them. Landholders holding under ryotwari settlements, or in any other way subject to the payment of land-revenue direct to Government, and all other registered holders of land in proprietary rights who have not yet been mentioned, are given the benefit of the Act if they have taken an agreement in writing from their tenants, but not otherwise. If the rent remains unpaid at the time when, according to any written agreement or the custom of the country, it ought to have been paid, the landholder is authorized to distrain, upon his own responsibility and with the aid of the Police if necessary, the crops and movable property of the tenants, after giving due notice; but he is bound to send within ten days a written notice to the Collector or other officer duly

empowered in that behalf, showing the details of the property distrained, to enable the Collector to have the property appraised. Tenants are allowed to prefer an appeal to the Collector against wrongful distraint, but the appeal must be made within thirty days from the date of the distraint. If the appeal is established the Collector orders the property to be restored, but if no appeal is made, or, if having been made it is rejected, the Collector on the application of the distrainer authorizes the public officer duly appointed in that behalf to cause the sale of the movable property, which is accordingly sold by him after due notice. Where the tenant has a saleable interest in the land, this also is sold under the rules laid down for the sale of the movable property. When there is no property or it is insufficient, the landholder can apply to the Collector for a warrant authorizing him to eject the tenant and to enter on the land; a warrant is accordingly granted and entrusted to a Police officer. If no appeal is made to the Collector within fifteen days after the warrant is served, or if an appeal has been made and it is decided against the defaulter, the police officer places the landholder in possession of the land. The landholder is also competent to apply for a warrant for the personal arrest of the defaulter, which is granted if the Collector is satisfied that the defaulter is wilfully withholding payment or has been guilty of fraudulent conduct in order to evade payment; but no defaulter can be imprisoned for a longer period than two years, whatever the amount of arrear may be. It is open to the landholder either to exercise the summary powers above referred to, or to recover his rent in the ordinary courts of law like any other debt.

(*d*).—Establishments.

Village officers.

The basis of the system of Revenue administration is found in the village corporations, which, as already stated, have existed from time immemorial, and in many respects still retain their vitality. In almost every Hindu village there are twelve village servants, called the Barabuloti or "twelve men," who perform all needful public offices. The following is the list. The first five only render service to Government, or are recognized as parts of the Revenue administration:— 1, Headman; 2, Carnam or Accountant; 3, Shroff or Notagar; 4, Nirganti; 5, Toty or Taliary; 6, Potter; 7, Smith; 8, Jeweller; 9, Carpenter; 10, Barber; 11, Washerman; 12, Astrologer. The headman, who goes by various names, such as monigar, potel, naidu, reddi, peddacapu, natamgar, &c., is an important officer; he represents the Government in the village, collects the revenue, and has also magisterial and judicial powers. As a Magistrate he punishes persons for petty assaults and affrays; and as a Judge he tries suits for sums of money or other personal property up to Rupees 10 value, there

being no appeal against his decision. With consent of the parties he can adjudicate civil claims up to Rupees 100 value. If parties consent, he can summon a punchayet, who will then adjudicate on suits without limit as to value, and also without appeal. The headman is generally one of the largest landholders in the village, and as a rule exercises much influence over the inhabitants. Acting as a Judge he is styled Munsif. In some cases the custom of the place separates the munsifship from the monigarship, and sometimes more than one monigar is appointed for a village. The duties of the headman are defined in Regulation XI of 1816, but its interpretation in reference to his Police duties has caused doubts. The carnam is the village accountant and is a very important ministerial officer. The accounts kept by him will be described hereafter. The shroff is found only in certain villages ; his duty is to test the money paid in by villagers to the headman on account of Government. The nirganti has charge of the irrigation of village lands where there is irrigation from tanks or channels. Some villages however have irrigation but no nirganti, the work being done by the village peon or by the cultivators themselves. The village toty, otherwise taliary, vetty, or ugrany, is simply a village peon acting under the orders of the headman. This office is generally held by the lower class of the community. The taliary is sometimes a separate official acting in the capacity of watchman. The remainder on the list are the artizans necessary to the internal conduct of a village community. In the revisions of Governmental village establishments which will shortly be mentioned, considerable changes have been made even in the assignment of duties and names of the officials.

Succession to village offices.

When village offices are hereditary, as is the case in most localities, heirs succeed in the usual course, under the terms of the native law of inheritance, which is modified only to the extent of precluding partition. In the case of offices other than those of headman, carnam, nirganti, vettian and toty, the villagers manage their own affairs, the parties filing suits if they please before the Collector under Regulation VI of 1831. In the case of the offices just mentioned the succession is regulated by the Collector. With reference to the rights and fitness of the several claimants to office the native law of inheritance is attended to as far as is possible. Females and minors may in special cases succeed, appointing gumastahs or proxies with the sanction of the Collector. Adoption is recognized or not recognized in the usual way under the law. If any person having an interest desires a more formal inquiry, he may file a suit under Regulation VI of 1831 before the Collector. This officer will then issue process to parties and witnesses and hold a quasi-judicial inquiry. Disobedience to the summons can be punished under Sections 172 to 174 of the Penal Code. The Civil Procedure Act does not apply to cases tried in this way, and

there is no law for awarding costs. The Government of India have exempted these cases from the Court Fees Act; stamps are therefore unnecessary. Section 3 of Regulation VII of 1828 gives Collectors power to revise the proceedings of their subordinates under this Regulation without limit of time; but three months has been fixed departmentally as the period for appeal. When a case is heard by a divisional officer, the parties may appeal to the Collector or to the Board direct, whichever they prefer. When the Collector has made a decision on appeal, this does not bar a further appeal to the Board of Revenue, or from them to the Government. There is no provision for enforcing orders passed under this Regulation, nor for ousting adverse occupants; but in practice the orders of the Tahsildar are not disobeyed. A Bill has been drafted to grant the requisite powers. The procedure throughout is somewhat informal, but the Regulation proposes rather to be a measure of State administration than of adjudication of private claims. Collectors are instructed to respect possession extending over more than three years against any ordinary claim on grounds of hereditaryship; though there is no objection to their putting on record a statement of opinion that in the event of the demise of the present occupant, the claimant will have a right to secure a reversion of the office. Collectors have the power of dismissing village officers for misconduct. The same questions then arise as in the case of succession by demise. An heir may succeed if no way concerned in the offence; or if this arrangement is not practicable a temporary appointment of a stranger may be made to last during the lifetime of the person dismissed. The Civil Courts are forbidden by law to take cognizance of any questions of a nature provided for by Regulation VI of 1831. Carnams in Zemindaries are provided for separately by Regulation XXIX of 1802, and placed under the jurisdiction of the Civil Court; they do not fall under Regulation VI of 1831 and the Collector does not regulate the succession to office.

Emoluments of village officers.

The non-Governmental village servants are almost wholly paid by fees from the villagers direct. In some cases, however, where the Government have in former days given Inam lands to such servants, these are continued. No new grants or allowances are made by Government to such servants. The Governmental village servants are paid in some cases by the enjoyment of Government land rent free or on a trifling assessment called jodi, in some cases by having assigned to them the State dues payable by some third person occupying land, in some cases by contributions of grain or money made by the villagers themselves irrespective of the land-revenue, and in some cases by salaries direct from Government. When land questions are involved in the emoluments of office, disputes are frequent and are decided usually by suit before the Collector under Regulation VI of 1831.

The most frequent cause of dispute is the question whether the village officer's case falls under the first or the second of the heads given above; that is to say whether he is to be put in possession of the land assigned to the office, or whether he is merely to be given the right to receive the Government assessment money from the hands of the occupant. This will depend very much on the terms of the original grant, which was often made before the Fysal or original settlement of the British Government, and is thus involved in obscurity. The general question as to whether the land itself or the assessment only constitutes properly the emoluments of a village servant, has been much discussed; it has been decided in practice to adjudicate each case on its merits and with regard to its past history as far as this can be ascertained. Regulation VI of 1831 renders it illegal to make any formal alienation of Inam emoluments; until recently however the law was frequently evaded. The present cost of the village establishments in land and fees is about 47 lakhs of rupees.

Revision of village establishments.

The system of payment by Inams from Government or by Merahs from villagers has for some years been regarded as objectionable, and the tendency has been to substitute salaries from Government in all cases. Act IV of 1864, which may be applied on occasion to different districts, was passed to enable the Government when they took over the entire charge of the village servants to recover from the villagers, in the form of a land-cess not exceeding one anna in the rupee on their assessment, the amount of the fees which they originally contributed in private. The Inam rules, which may be applied from time to time, provide for raising the beneficial rate of assessment on lands hitherto Inam, while withdrawing some of the State claims on the lands and giving an absolute ownership in them to the present occupant. By a combination of these two measures the Government have had it in their power to make a complete revision of the village establishments in the direction of substituting stipends for other forms of emolument. The opportunity has been taken to revise the establishments as well as the emoluments, and to get rid of irregular claimants to the latter. The revision of village establishments is being carried out in a detached way in different localities; it has hitherto followed the operations of the Revenue Settlement Department, but in future it is to be carried out *pari passu* with the settlement. The salaries in the revised establishments are paid from a fund called the Village Service Fund. To this are credited all the new quit-rents which come in from the enfranchised lands, formerly Inam and paying little or nothing; the proceeds of the cess under Act IV of 1864 where imposed; and contributions made by Government in lieu of lands and fees formerly appropriated to this purpose but since resumed by Government. The

practical effect of the revision may be seen from the two following examples. A village servant is, we will suppose, in the enjoyment of Government land; and his emolument consists in his paying no assessment on it or only a nominal jodi. Under the revision he will receive a salary instead of this emolument. Special terms will be made with him as to the land. The terms will be that Government will make him proprietor of the land, which will thenceforward have no further connection with the office, and be an alienable piece of property belonging to the individual; while the Government will thenceforward tax the land with land-revenue, amounting however not to the full amount, but only five-eighths of the amount. The special terms are granted in consideration of the long period during which these lands have been looked on by the people as quasi-private property. A village servant again, we will suppose, derives his emoluments from the payment to him by a third person of the assessment properly payable to Government; that is to say, the village servant is paid by what is called Tirvei-manyam and not by what is called Nila-manyam. In this case, if enfranchisement is applied, the occupying ryot or third person continues to pay to the village servant in whose name the Inam has been enfranchised the full assessment, and the Inamdar pays to Government five-eighths assessment, keeping three-eighths; the ryot neither loses nor gains. Owing to illegal alienation, and to irregular applications of the Hindu law of partition of property on demise, many superfluous claimants to village service emoluments have arisen. In some localities a number of persons divide the emoluments in this way, one of the number only being the actual working officer. When such persons can show a long prescriptive enjoyment of their emoluments, however erroneously acquired in the first instance, they are allowed to enfranchise on five-eighths assessment. The rules indeed have been very liberally interpreted, and in many cases even a single year's possession has been respected and the possessor allowed to enfranchise. The fees from villagers are, as has already been said, no longer paid in these cases; the Government make good the fees to the officers in the salaries which they give them, and take from the villagers a one-anna cess to recoup themselves. In revising village establishments small villages are clubbed together in order to reduce the establishments where necessary with reference to the assets available for payment, but care is taken that the clubbing is not carried too far, so as to cause inconvenience to the communities concerned. A resident Munsif is provided for each village, and the wishes of the villagers are as far as possible consulted in carrying out the clubbing. In the revision, the number of servants is generally reduced, but their remuneration is, as a rule, improved. When revision has fully taken place it is evident that

there will remain of the numerous land disputes now occurring under Regulation VI of 1831 only a few in connection with the artizan non-Government village offices. Offices will however still remain hereditary where they are so at present, and cases of succession will still be triable under the Regulation. The districts in which the revision has been already carried out, or in which it is now being introduced, are Godavari, Kurnool, Tinnevelly, Salem, Chingleput, Nellore, and Trichinopoly. Revision will shortly be carried out in the Kistna. In Tanjore the village establishments were to a certain extent revised in 1867, but the Village Cess Act, No. IV of 1864, was not brought into force, the existing assets of the district being sufficient. In the remaining districts the old system still continues. The rates of salary allowed in the revision are variable, but the following for Kurnool, the Godavari, and Trichinopoly, may be taken as specimens;—

Description of Servants.	Kurnool.			Godavari.			Trichinopoly.		
	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.
Vettians.	Rs. Up to 750 „ 1,500 „ 4,000 Above 4,000	1 2 3 4	48 rupees for each Vettian.	Rs. Up to 1,000 „ 3,000 „ 6,000 „ 9,000 Above 9,000	1 2 3 4 5	48 rupees for each Vettian.	No scale.	It is not known how many Vettians were allowed for each village.	36 rupees for each Vettian.
Nirguntas.	None.	...	...	No scale.	Not known.	48 rupees per annum.	None.	...	...
Taliaries.	No scale.	Not known.	48 rupees each for 2,470 Taliaries and 60 rupees for 22 Taliaries.	No scale.	For 714 villages at one Taliari each, and for 29 villages at 2 Taliaries for each were allowed.	Rupees 48 per annum.	No scale.	The number given for each village is not known.	36 rupees per annum.

Description of Servants.	Kurnool. Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Kurnool. Rate per Annum.	Godavari. Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Godavari. Rate per Annum.	Trichinopoly. Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Trichinopoly. Rate per Annum.
Munsifs or Monigars.	Rs. Up to 5,000 ... „ 7,000 ... „ 9,000 and upwards. 1 Reddy for Nundial Village. 1 Town Munsif	Rs. 60 84 96 120 144 240 300	Rs. Up to 600 ... „ 1,000 ... „ 1,500 ... „ 3,000 ... „ 5,000 ... „ 7,000 ... „ 9,000 ... Above 9,000 ... „ 22,000 ...	Rs. 18 24 36 48 60 72 96 120 144	No scale.	42 rupees for each Monigar without reference to the revenue of the village.
Carnams.	Rs. Up to 1,000 ... ... „ 1,500 ... ... „ 2,000 ... ... „ 3,000 ... ... „ 4,000 ... ... „ 5,000 ... ... „ 6,000 ... ... „ 7,000 ... ... „ 8,000 ... ... „ 9,000 ... ... Above 9,000	Rs. 60 72 84 96 108 120 132 144 156 168 180	Rs. Up to 1,500 ... „ 2,000 ... „ 3,000 ... „ 4,000 ... „ 5,000 ... „ 6,000 ... „ 7,000 ... „ 8,000 ... „ 9,000 ... Above 9,000 ... „ 22,000 ...	Rs. 60 84 96 108 120 132 144 156 168 216 240	Rs. Up to 1,000 ... „ 2,000 ... „ 4,000 ... Above 4,000 ...	Rs. 72 84 96 108

Taluks.

There are in all 27,181 villages excluding those in permanently-settled estates, and these are distributed into 157 taluks, each of which is controlled by a Tahsildar. The following statement shows the number of taluks in each district:—

Districts.	Number of Government Taluks.
Ganjam	3
Vizagapatam	2
Godavari	10
Kistna	11
Nellore	9
Cuddapah	11
Bellary	15
Kurnool	8
Madras	1
Chingleput	6
North Arcot	9
South Arcot	8
Tanjore	9
Trichinopoly	5
Madura	6
Tinnevelly	9
Coimbatore	10
Nilgiris	1
Salem	9
South Canara	5
Malabar	10

Excluding the three exceptional taluks of Madras, the Nilgiris, and Cochin, an average taluk may be said to contain about 200 villages, a population of about 150,000, a land-revenue of about Rupees 2,50,000, and an extent of about 700 square miles.

Taluk officers.

Taluks are divided into five grades according to their importance. The Tahsildar's establishment consists of a Serishtadar, Clerks, Revenue Inspectors, and servants. The Serishtadar is in immediate charge of the Taluk Treasury, as also of accounts, abstracts, registers, and periodical returns. The Clerks, of whom there are eight or nine, prepare the accounts, bills, abstract cultivation statements, season and other returns, village abstracts of demand, collection, and balance, settlement accounts, registers, &c., attend to correspondence, aid in magisterial work, and have charge of the office records which under the ryotwari system are voluminous. The Revenue Inspectors, of whom there are three or four, are in charge of portions of taluks and itinerate constantly from village to village seeing that the work of the village officers is properly performed, and conducting such local inquiries as may be considered necessary by the Tahsildar. Every Tahsildar is also a Sub-Magistrate. In this capacity, and also to a limited extent in his revenue work, he is assisted by officers styled "Deputy Tahsildar and Sub-Magistrate," who are established in important towns and outlying portions of taluks. Some of these officers are also placed in charge of large estates which do not fall within the jurisdiction of any Tahsildar. Each has a small establishment. The actual cost of all these establishments, according to a recent computation, was Rupees 14,64,732. Appendix Statement No. VIII shows the location and pay of all Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars.

Districts.

The 157 taluks are distributed amongst twenty-one districts, two of which, namely Madras and the Nilgiris, being of an exceptional character, contain only one taluk each. The extent and revenue of each is shown in the following statement:—

Districts.	Extent.	Population.	Collection from all sources in a recent average Revenue year.
	SQ. MILES.		RS.
Ganjam	8,313	1,520,088	33,01,554
Vizagapatam	18,344	2,159,199	24,11,916
Godavari	7,109	1,620,634	54,51,537
Kistna	8,036	1,452,374	56,74,860
Nellore	8,462	1,376,811	37,60,770
Cuddapah	8,867	1,351,194	23,74,878
Bellary	11,007	1,668,006	34,34,599
Kurnool	7,358	959,640	19,43,937
Madras	27	397,552	34,15,747
Chingleput	2,753	933,184	50,06,304
North Arcot	7,139	2,015,278	31,48,400
South Arcot	4,873	1,755,817	45,90,021
Tanjore	3,654	1,973,731	74,86,496
Trichinopoly	3,515	1,200,408	18,30,510
Madura	9,502	2,266,615	40,12,993
Tinnevelly	5,176	1,693,959	48,96,326
Coimbatore	7,432	1,763,274	30,29,273
Nilgiris	749	49,501	1,38,708
Salem	7,483	1,966,995	28,12,210
South Canara	3,902	918,362	22,04,630
Malabar	6,002	2,261,250	40,35,616

Each district contains on the average, excluding Madras and the Nilgiris, 7,285 square miles and 1,624,306 inhabitants, and has a

revenue of Rupees 37,56,828. The revenue from all sources, instead of from land-revenue alone, is shown in this statement, because the establishments are required to administer all.

District officers.

The districts were controlled on the 31st March 1876 by twenty Collectors and a Commissioner,* sixteen Sub-Collectors (called in two cases† Principal Assistants), eighteen Head Assistant Collectors (called in two cases Senior Assistants), three Special Assistants, eight Passed Assistants, and eight Unpassed Assistants (all of whom, with the exception of two Special Assistants, belong to the Covenanted Civil Service), assisted by fifty-four Uncovenanted Deputy Collectors. There are nineteen District Treasuries; and the average revenue being Rupees 37,55,828 as already shown, and the average disbursements considerable, a Deputy Collector is required for each. A Deputy Collector is in charge of the Salt Department in each of the twelve maritime districts. The Deputy Collectors on general duties assist the Collectors and their Assistants in revenue administration and magisterial work, except the Deputy Collector of Madras who is not a Magistrate. When an Assistant Collector has passed a certain examination in law and languages he is said to be a Passed Assistant, and may be placed in charge of one or two taluks. Until he passes he is attached to some superior officer to learn his work. The Special Assistants, of whom one is a Covenanted Civilian and the other an Officer of the Staff Corps, assist the Agents to the Governor in Vizagapatam and Ganjam. The Head Assistant Collectors hold independent charge of two or three taluks, but are subject to the complete control of their Collectors. The Sub-Collectors, who are also Magistrates, have larger charges, and are more independent. Their establishment consists of a Serishtadar or Manager, and Clerks and servants. The Collectors, who are also Magistrates, have each a territorial charge immediately under them, and exercise a general control over their Sub-Collectors, Assistants, and Deputy Collectors. They superintend and control all persons engaged in the administration of the revenue; they are responsible for the Treasury to which the taluk collections are sent, and which keeps and dispenses a large stock of stamps; they see that the revenues are punctually realized, and that when arrears accrue, the proper processes are resorted to for recovering them; they manage estates of Minors under Regulation V of 1804; they determine boundary disputes under Regulation XII of 1816; they try cases of malversation under Regulation IX of 1822, and claims to village offices under Regulation VI of 1831; they decide rent cases between landlords and their tenants under Madras Act VIII of 1865; they take a chief part in the administration of Municipalities under Madras Act III of 1871,

* Of the Nilgiris. † Ganjam and Vizagapatam.

and of Local Funds raised for roads and communications, primary education, hospitals, and sanitation under Madras Act IV of 1871; as Agents to the Board of Revenue under Regulation VII of 1817 they are responsible for the due appropriation of endowments; in maritime districts they control the sea customs; finally, they are expected to be thoroughly acquainted with the state of Native feeling in their districts in regard to the policy and measures of Government, and to be the advisers of Government with respect to police, public works, education, sanitation, and the miscellaneous matters which conduce to the welfare of their districts. A Collector's establishment consists of (1) a Serishtadar managing the Native Correspondence Department; (2) the English Correspondence and General Account Department; (3) the Treasury and Stamp Department; (4) the Press Department; (5) Miscellaneous office servants. The Deputy Collector in charge of the Treasury supervises the second, third, and fourth departments, and a Head Clerk is in immediate charge of the second department. One-fifth of the costs of all the establishments which have been described is considered chargeable to Law and Justice on account of the magisterial work performed by them, and the rest to Land-revenue. Collectors of districts are competent on their own authority to suspend from office or dismiss any servant of inferior grade to that of Deputy Tahsildar, Tahsildar, Subdivision Serishtadar, or Head Serishtadar. The nomination to the offices just specified vests in the Collector. The Board's sanction however is required for the appointment of Head Serishtadar and Subdivision Serishtadar, and that of Government for the appointment of Tahsildar and Deputy Tahsildar. In the case of Tahsildars, transfers involving a reduction of salary or suspension can only be made under the orders of the Board; in the case of Deputy Tahsildars, reference to the Board is not necessary. Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars can be dismissed only under the orders of Government. Collectors may dismiss Taluk Serishtadars on their own authority, reporting that they have done so to Government in order that the sanction given to their employment as Magistrates may be revoked. Collectors may suspend Tahsildars for grave offences, but a report must then be made to the Board within twenty-four hours. Collectors are competent to inflict fines upon any of their subordinates, but the amount cannot exceed Rupees 10 without the previous sanction of the Board. Appendix Statement No. IX at the end of this volume shows in detail the charges of different divisional officers throughout the Presidency, with their head-quarters, &c.

Board of Revenue.

The whole of the machinery just described is controlled by a Board of Revenue, consisting of three Members, a Secretary, a Sub-Secretary, a Serishtadar, two Assistants, a Manager, Clerks and servants. The first duty of the Board is to secure the punctual collection of the

revenues; to manipulate and record all statistics with regard to population, agriculture, exports and imports, health and the condition and advancement of the country; to manage the expenditure of Local and Special Funds; to take charge of the estates of Minors as a Court of Wards; to secure the proper application of endowments; and to decide the frequent appeals which result from a system in which the Government is concerned directly with peasant proprietors. To compare the Board of Revenue with departments of Government in England, it may be said that it performs the duties undertaken there by the Board of Customs, the Board of Inland Revenue, and the Commissioner of Woods, Forests and Land Revenue, as well as much of the work that devolves upon the Treasury. In communication with the Survey and Settlement Departments, which are subordinate to it, it carries on work similar to that of the Copy-hold Enclosure and Tithe Commission in England. It takes the place in many respects of the Board of Trade, the Commission of Fisheries, and the Warden of the Standards in stamping weights and measures. Under Regulation VII of 1817 it acts the part of the English Charity Commissioners. In auditing charges connected with the administration of the revenue and the smaller local funds it does the duty of the London Audit Office. In four-fifths of the Presidency where the land is held direct from Government by peasant proprietors it does the work which is done on a smaller scale by the Duchy of Cornwall Office for the estates of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in the County of Cornwall. In its capacity as Court of Wards under Regulation V of 1804 and as a guardian of endowments under Regulation VII of 1828 it does work which in England devolves upon the Court of Chancery.

(*e*)—Accounts.

Village Accounts.

The old system of accounts in Government villages was extremely complicated and cumbrous, and a thorough revision was made in 1855 by Jeyaram Chetty, then Head Serishtadar to the Board of Revenue, under the orders of Government. A complete uniform system of accounts was then prescribed, but since that date there have been various changes in the Revenue administration, such as the introduction of the survey and settlement in several districts, the settlement of Inam lands, the abolition of moturpha or profession-tax, the discontinuance of the Ooloogoo renting system in Tanjore and Tinnevelly, the abolition of garden rates, the creation of Local Fund Circles, and the like, these seem to call for a further revision of the accounts, and the matter is now under consideration. The village accounts at present kept are divided into permanent, daily and monthly, annual and quinquennial. The most important of the

permanent accounts is the register of fields showing their size, description, assessment, and other particulars, as decided by traditional records or by the new Survey and Settlement Departments in districts in which they have worked. This is in fact the topographical map of the village reduced to the form of a statement. The other permanent accounts are abstracts of the field register and registers intended to show in one view the revenue and other particulars of the village for a series of years. The daily and monthly accounts show the progress of cultivation and the progress made in collecting the State dues. They also include a rain register and a register of births and deaths in the village. The object of the annual accounts is to adjust the yearly demands between the State and the ryot. Owing to the nature of the ryotwari system the demand necessarily varies each year. The Carnam has to note down all the lands newly occupied by the ryots and those given up, to record the extent actually cultivated and that left waste, to notice the claims of the ryots to remissions for loss of crops or waste from causes beyond their control, and to register the extent of second crop raised on single crop lands, and of Government water used for lands classed as unirrigated in the accounts. All this information is exhibited in the annual accounts which are checked by the taluk officials, chiefly by an officer called a Revenue Inspector, and with reference to these accounts and such other inquiry as is held by the Collector or his Assistant at the annual Jummabundy or settlement, the revenue demand payable by each ryot is determined. The quinquennial accounts are purely statistical. They show the rent-roll, the population, the number of ploughs and live-stock, and the number of irrigation works in repair in the village. All these accounts which are twenty-four in number with twelve enclosures are prepared on paper and are written in the vernacular of the district, the figures however being in English. Some of the registers are kept in the village, and others are sent to the taluk periodically for deposit.

Taluk Accounts.

The accounts kept at the taluks or head-quarter stations of Tahsildars are prepared for the most part on the same principle as the village accounts, substituting items of whole villages for those of individual holdings. The only accounts of importance in regard to which individual particulars are kept at the taluk head-quarters are the statements showing arrears outstanding against each ryot at the time of the yearly settlement, these being prepared with a view to decide whether the arrears should be recovered in the ordinary course, or remitted and written off as irrecoverable for any special reason. Accounts are kept relating to stamps and progress of revenue work which do not appear in the village set of forms. The taluk accounts were last revised in 1858, when a manual was prepared. A further revision is in contemplation for the reasons given with regard to village accounts.

Huzur Accounts.

Collectors furnish accounts to the Accountant-General and Board of Revenue according to forms which have been prescribed from time to time. There is no manual. The accounts sent to the Accountant-General are almost all monthly and relate to actual receipts and disbursements in the district. Those sent to the Board are monthly, annual, and quinquennial. Monthly the Collector sends to the Board a statement showing the area cultivated, the demand, collection, and balance statement of all sources of revenue and a report on season and prices. Annually he furnishes a report on the settlement of the year called the Jummabundy report, accompanied with detailed statements showing the area occupied, the area actually cultivated and irrigated, the gross demand payable, the remissions granted with particulars, the amount and particulars of miscellaneous revenue, the actual collections, the extent of coercive processes used, and the arrears and the amount of arrears requiring to be written off the accounts. He also furnishes the Board annually with separate statements showing the several crops raised and the extent under each crop, the revenue raised under each important work of irrigation, and the works of irrigation requiring repairs; quinquennially statistical information is given in regard to the number of ryots and agricultural stocks, rent-roll, population, sources of irrigation, and the extent of the cultivable lands available for cultivation. There are various other statements sent by Collectors to the Board, but they are not of sufficient importance to require mention. Collection of statistical information on a still more comprehensive scale is under contemplation.

SURVEYS.

History of the department.

Before the year 1853 no regular Revenue Survey had been attempted in the Madras Presidency, and the only maps were those prepared by the Military Institution between the years 1805 and 1820. As regards field measurements, the land-revenue demand was either based on Carnams' unchecked statements, or on measurements made in haste and with imperfect machinery. In the year 1853 an experimental survey of villages in the South Arcot District was instituted. During the two succeeding years the subject of a general survey of the Presidency was fully discussed, and in December 1856 the Court of Directors sanctioned a definite scheme. In 1858 a Superintendent of Revenue Survey was appointed, an establishment sanctioned, and work commenced. The original scheme has since been considerably extended, and the settlement and demarcation of boundaries, as well as the

topographical survey of all zemindari and hill tracts, are now part of the duties of the department.

Nature of work.

The survey as now organized is conducted on the accurate English method, and is, as far as is known, the only Indian revenue survey, except those in progress in certain districts of the North-West Provinces, which is based on rigorous principles in every detail. It combines the operations of a revenue or cadastral survey with those of a perfect topographical survey on a trigonometrical basis. The revenue survey proper, with few exceptions, is confined to villages in which land-tax is paid to Government on the ryotwari system. Villages other than these, ranges of hills, and tracts of waste land or forest of inferior value are excluded from the minute detailed field survey, and are topographically surveyed on a scale of 4 inches to the mile for detached zemindaries and agraharams, 2 inches and 1 inch to the mile for large zemindaries and excluded tracts, and ½ inch to the mile in the case of exceptionally wild and unhealthy country. The operations in Government lands are as follows. The village boundaries are first settled, every conspicuous turn of the line being permanently marked with stone; then disputes are disposed of, irregular boundaries are adjusted, very small villages are amalgamated, and very large villages are subdivided. After these preliminaries the boundary of each field is pointed out by the Carnam and is demarcated in accordance with his putta accounts and revenue records. The field boundaries are permanently marked with stone and every holding is registered. The law regarding boundary marks is contained in Act XXVIII of 1860. Main circuits of from 50 to 100 square miles are traversed with the theodolite chain, the angular work being checked by observations for azimuth at about every 50 stations. Village boundaries are also surveyed by theodolite, and check lines within the village forming minor circuits of from 100 to 200 acres are run. While the boundary work is being set up by traverse and plotted, the fields are measured by chain in triangles, so that when the measurement books are received in office, the map is ready to receive the fields. After correction of any errors that may be found to exist, the area of each field is measured on the plan by computing scale, and the sum of the areas so obtained is compared with the traverse area. In zemindari and hill tracts, the details are put in by plane table. The village map is then sent out for insertion of topographical details. It shows eventually the limits and area of every field, with a record of the nature of tenure, cultivation, present assessment, name of ryot and source of water-supply if irrigated. The village maps are compiled into taluk maps, on a scale of 1 inch to a mile, and these form the materials for district maps. The district and taluk maps are compiled in the Central Survey Office at Madras. At the request of the Surveyor-General of India, the

results of the Madras Survey are being recast in such a form as to be available for the revision of the Atlas of India. Village maps are reproduced by lithography for the use of the Settlement Department. Taluk and district maps are also lithographed; photo-lithography has been in use in the Survey Office since 1873. The following scales for the preparation of maps are in use:—Village maps, 5 chains to 1 inch, or 1 mile to 16 inches; Taluk maps, 1 mile to 1 inch; and District maps, 2 miles to 1 inch.

Progress to date.

The Presidency contains approximately 141,429 square miles, and up to the close of the official year 1878-79 the progress shown in the statement at foot had been made. The average size of a field is about 2 acres. The average error in the village maps, shown by the test of comparing the work with that of the great trigonometrical survey is 7·61 feet per mile. The measuring work of the survey is followed by the equally important operation of classing the fields with reference to the productiveness of their soils. This is the work of the Revenue Settlement Department next to be described:—

		S. Miles.
Villages surveyed on 16-inch scale		48,478
Zemindari and hilly tracts surveyed on 4, 2, and 1-inch scale		41,195
Topographically surveyed by a party from Bengal ...		3,000
Total surveyed ...		44,195
Remaining to be surveyed ...	Revenue	10,112
	Topographical	41,644

Maps.

Village maps published	17,470
Taluk maps published	89
District maps published	7

REVENUE SETTLEMENT.

History and nature of the department.

The principle adopted in this Presidency in the settlement of holdings other than those already permanently settled under the Regulation of 1802 is to fix a money-assessment founded upon due consideration of all the circumstances of the district, and to declare this assessment liable to revision after 30 years. A period is named as the Government reserve the right to derive benefit in the future from a share of the increased value conferred on the land by improved administration, the construction of public works, especially works of irrigation and railways, and the improved price of agricultural produce. The settlement is effected from time to time in different parts of the country.

A revision of the land assessment of the Madras Presidency was undertaken in 1858 by Mr. Newill, who was then appointed Director of Revenue Settlement. This revision commenced in the South Arcot and Godavari Districts, and was shortly afterwards extended to the Kistna District. In South Arcot only the Chilambaram Taluk and part of the Cuddalore Taluk were completed in 1861, but the whole of the Godavari and Kistna Districts were settled in 1866–73, the settlement of the Trichinopoly, Salem, and Nellore Districts was made in 1865, 1873, and 1874, and Kurnool proper, excluding two taluks lately transferred from Cuddapah, was settled in 1872. Operations were further extended to the Tinnevelly, Chingleput, Cuddapah, Coimbatore, and Ganjam Districts, and these are now far advanced towards completion. The Settlement Department at first consisted of three parties under Deputy Directors, who were required to demarcate the village and field boundaries in advance of the Survey, and to ascertain the value of the lands as a preliminary to revising the assessment. The former was a tedious process, involving much arbitration and the investigation of many disputes. A patch of waste land in the plains, or a few acres of barren hill side, were disputed by rival villagers with a tenacity fostered by years of factious contention; and though the possession, when gained, could often be of no possible use, the claim of either party had to be carefully considered, and the work in that spot delayed until the matter was finally settled. The requirements of the Survey, too, were not sufficiently known, and the marks erected, in many cases, were temporary and destructible, and had frequently to be renewed by others of a more permanent nature. This unsatisfactory work continued to occupy much time and attention until the Godavari, Kistna, Kurnool, Nellore, Salem, Trichinopoly, and Tinnevelly Districts were demarcated and surveyed, when the demarcation of boundaries was made over to the Survey Department. This was in 1864. When freed from demarcation the Settlement Establishment was able to turn full attention to its legitimate work of revising the land assessment. To do this it was necessary to obtain a general view of the characteristics of each district about to be settled; to ascertain particulars of the climate, rainfall, and physical features of such tracts or divisions as might differ from each other distinctly; to search the Collector's records for information relative to the past history of the districts, their years of plenty or famine, their lands, tenures, mode of taxation, and cause of their gradual progress; to study the relative values of such sources of irrigation as they might possess; to determine how different tracts were affected by roads, canals, market towns, hill ranges or seaboard; and to acquire a general idea of the prevailing soils in each tract, and the relative value of such black or red loam, sand, or clay as might be found to exist. Each taluk was next visited, and the Revenue

officers and leading ryots assembled, and their opinion asked regarding the relative values of villages under such and such irrigation, or in such and such a position; information was also recorded as to the payment of labor, the method of cultivation pursued, the crops grown, the mode of disposal of surplus grain, and the markets mostly frequented. The villages were next formed into groups, with reference to their several advantages of irrigation, climate, soil, situation, &c., and a series of experiments was made to ascertain the yield of the staple grains. When this was determined a table was framed showing the yield of each class of soil, and this yield was converted into money by an average struck on twenty years' market prices, with some abatement for traders' profits and for the distance that the grain usually had to be carried. From the value of the gross produce thus determined the cost of cultivation was deducted, and the remainder or net value of the produce was then divided, and one-half taken as the Government demand on the land. The work so far was done by the officer at the head of each party, but in the mean time his native establishment has been employed in going over the villages and classifying the land according to soil and circumstance. This operation was carefully watched and checked by the head of the party, who eventually prepared a scheme for the settlement of the whole, or part of a district, and submitted it for the sanction of Government. In the manner just described 21 schemes, or estimates of financial results, have been submitted up to date, and on sanction accorded by Government the settlement has been introduced in the whole or part of 12 of the 22 districts of the Presidency. This settlement is not only an acreage charge on the lands in each ryot's holding, but it fixes the charge on each acre of waste likely to be cultivated hereafter, and as an average district contains 120,000 ryots and some 10 lakhs of fields, the work of introducing the settlement by issuing puttas, hearing appeals, and affording relief where needed is one of the most important parts of the process. In the districts first settled it was thought sufficient to accept existing entries in the Government account, and to issue the puttas in the names in which they then stood, but latterly more has been done, and the opportunity of making the settlement has been taken advantage of to divide the common lands, to allot necessary grazing grounds, to transfer lands improperly assessed as wet to dry, or *vice versâ*, and to change many thousands of puttas from the names of deceased ryots or vendors to those of the actual occupants of the land exhibited in these puttas. When this has been done, a register showing the number, area, assessment, soil, irrigation, and name of the puttadar of each field has been prepared for every village, and 30 copies of each register have been printed and distributed, one-third for sale to the ryots, one-third for official use, and

one-third for reserve in store. The cost of settlement has been from the commencement to date Rupees 63½ lakhs, or Rupees 5,17,923 for each finished district, or Rupees 1,375 per village, or 4 annas per acre. The work is necessarily slow; the average district of 1,200 villages and 120,000 puttadars has occupied nine years to settle, but the work has been complete, and the figures furnished in the registers admit of revision, should such be necessary, on the expiration of the term of this 30 years' settlement without again going through the processes on which these figures are based. On the whole there is an increase in the revenue derived from raising the rates of assessment and the taking up of the waste. The additional revenue drawn from the finished districts is now Rupees 7,80,025 above the assessment of the year preceding that in which they were settled; this is equivalent to a present return of 19 per cent. on the outlay, and this return is likely to increase as more waste land is brought under cultivation.

The cost of the settlement of the eight districts completed up to the end of 1878-79 is Rupees 41,43,386, and that of the survey of the same Rupees 49,80,518, total Rupees 91,23,904. The increase of revenue by the survey settlement in these districts is Rupees 7,80,025 or 9 per cent. on the outlay.

INAM COMMISSION.

Origin of Inams.

The origin of Inam tenure can be traced to a very remote antiquity in Southern India. The gift of land is enjoined by the Hindu Shastras as the most meritorious of charities, and every Hindu sovereign was therefore ambitious of distinguishing his reign by the extent and value of the lands he alienated in Inam to the religious classes of the community. Inam grants were generally made in a solemn and impressive manner. They were engraved on copper-plates or slabs of stone and were declared to be irrevocable "so long as the sun and moon endure;" a heavy curse was invoked on those who disturbed the tenure, while great merit was ascribed to those who maintained and confirmed it. The grants made by the Hindu sovereigns of Bijayanagar, the rulers of the Pandyan dynasty whose seat was Madura, the Mahratta princes who latterly ruled at Tanjore, and the chieftains of Orissa who for many centuries ruled over the greater part of the Northern Circars, were of this religious nature. During the period of anarchy which followed the overthrow of the Native dynasties and which continued, though in a less degree, after the establishment of the Mahomedan rule in Southern India, the power of granting Inams for numerous miscellaneous purposes was assumed by various petty

chiefs, officers of Government, and others, who alienated the revenues to a considerable extent. Numerous minor Inams of this description were granted by Zemindars, by Faujdars, and even by renters in the Northern Circars; while the Poligars of the Ceded Districts and the southern provinces of the Presidency were even more liberal. Though it was not the principle of the Mahomedan rulers to regard alienations of revenue as permanent and binding, their policy with regard to Inam tenures was practically lenient, and they generally respected the more ancient grants held by Brahmins and on account of temples. They also made liberal fresh grants, not only to their own immediate relatives and followers, the higher ranks of their civil and military officers and the religious classes of their own faith, but also to the Hindus and their religious institutions. Thus the effect of the Mahomedan rule was to add greatly to the already existing large extent of land exempt from the payment of revenue. Another period of political confusion ensued during the latter part of the last century when the supremacy in Southern India was contested between the British, the French, and the various local powers, which did not subside until the different treaties between the years 1750 and 1801 brought into the possession of the East India Company the whole of the present Madras Presidency. There is good reason to suppose that a large extent of land was granted as Inam during this intermediary period by parties who had not the least authority to make such alienations. During the earlier years of British rule the Government of the day, following the custom of the country, adopted the practice of rewarding meritorious services by grants of Jaghires, and thus many villages were alienated either in perpetuity or for a stated number of lives. This practice however gradually fell into disuse after the receipt of the despatches from the Court of Directors, dated 2nd January 1822 and 27th May 1829, in which they expressed their opinion of the superior propriety of money pensions to grants of land on all ordinary occasions, and directed that grants of land should be restricted to special cases. It was not unusual for the earlier Collectors to grant Inams of their own authority for various purposes, but the extent of land so alienated was comparatively trifling.

Early measures by British.

The enormous sacrifice of State revenue involved in these arrangements attracted the attention of the British administration at a very early period, and caused a recognition of the importance of a general inquiry into titles to rent-free lands. The enactment of certain laws followed, and several orders were issued on the subject; these however led to no practical results. Steps were certainly taken to prevent the diversion of Inams from the purposes for which they were granted in 1831, but it was not until 1845 that active measures were adopted to assert the reversionary rights of Government in property of this

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The Madra
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Mr. G. N. Tay
proceeded to Bomba
ties there, the details
sion in that Presidency
tenures for the future. In
modes of procedure the objec
registration through the district
orders of the Inam Commissioner or
Revenue. While the subject was under
Trevelyan arrived and assumed the Governmen
question which engaged his attention was the settle
of the Presidency, and in his minute of the 13th May
pounded certain rules by which the principles enunciated by
Directors were to be practically applied by the Inam Comm
the investigation upon which he was about to enter. His s
of a more liberal nature than that already proposed by
Government. The basis of his proposals was that when
proved that land had for fifty years been in the possessio
or of those through whom he claimed, without the pa
tax, such length of possession should be held to be a
land as Inam, whatever might have been the origin
The entries in the Revenue Accounts were to be co

[redacted]

for services connected therewith; II, Those held for purpo
public utility; III, Those held for the support of works of irr
yielding public revenue; IV, Those held by Brahmins an
religious classes for their personal benefit; V, Those held
families of Poligars and those who filled hereditary offices
under former governments; VI, Those held by the kinsm
dents and followers of former Poligars and Zemindars;
connected with the former general police of the country; V
held for ordinary Village Revenue and Police service
held by various descriptions of artizans for services d
communities. Each class will be noticed in the above o

A considerable portion of the Inam tenures in the Pre
to the religious institutions of the country, both M
Hindu. A recent computation gives the extent at acre
the Government value or assessment at Rupees 24,22
held either directly for the support of the institutions
services to be rendered therein. There is hardly a
importance in the country which does not possess its t
to Vishnu and the other to Siva, and which has not
village deity known under a variety of names. Th
description are therefore by far the most numerous, t
of each taken by itself is often inconsiderable. With
the pagoda of Jagannath, which, though not within
enjoys extensive Inams in the district of Ganjam, th
temples of note in the Northern Circars, nor are th
celebrity in the Ceded Districts excepting the temple
Sandur. By far the larger portion of the Inam
pagodas in the Southern Districts, such as Tripa
Srirangam, Rameswaram, and Madura. The valu
attached to the different Mathams, or spiritual heads
leading sects of Brahmins, are also included under this
be met with in nearly all the districts of the Preside
besides throughout the country minor religious institu
over by Brahmins, which enjoy Inams of more or le
belong to Bairagis and Pandarams or religious
Jangams or priests of the Lingait sect. The Mahom
are of a less varied character, and are generally in a d
throughout the country. They consist chiefly of m
of public workship, Takyas or residences of Fakir
shrines of Mahomedan saints. The endowments att
churches are very few and occur only in the districts
Tanjore.

A great variety of Inams falls under Class II, whi
held for the support of Chattrams, Water-pandals,

or Flower-gardens, Wells, Ponds, Tanks, Bridges, Village Schools, da Patasalas or schools for teaching the Vedas. The extent ently computed at acres 156,949 and the assessment at Rupees The object of the greater part of these grants is the provision nd shade, both wants of the first importance in a tropical Bridges and Village Schools endowed with Inams are few Schools for teaching the Vedas are also not numerous said to be falling into disuse.

of the third class usually known as Dasabhandams are- y to the Ceded Districts, the western portions of Guntoor, Arcot and Salem. The extent has been computed at nd the assessment at Rupees 1,40,715. They were ompense to private individuals who constructed tanks, -channels by means of which the revenue of the State The extent and value of the Inam were in proportion xpended on the work and the outturn in revenue. e of two descriptions, "Khanda Dasabhandams" or pecific localities, and "Shamilat Dasabhandams" or Inam of a certain proportion of each year's cultivation n question. Inams of the latter description have not the Inam registers as they had no locality. In all asabhandamdars are under the obligation of maintain- of irrigation in due repair. In some cases such a er not attached to Dasabhandam Inams or it had not a long time. Such Inams have been treated and personal grants. In the Ceded Districts certain diggers held Inams for the service of executing the irs of large Government tanks. Under the present he Public Works Department the Wudders occupied sition, and the services attached to their tenures were ery inefficiently rendered. Their Inams have conse- anchised under the rules.

tti and Khairati Inams held respectively by Brahmins for subsistence form nearly one-half of the Inams The extent has been given at acres 3,694,394 and Rupees 54,89,928. As has been already remarked, ms to Brahmins is of very great antiquity. The s also freely alienated lands to the religious classes These grants may be said to represent the accumu- the sovereigns and chiefs of the country from the s. The Inams held by the families of dispossessed ded Districts and the Baramahal, and of the ancient ndyas, and Desmukhs, who have been permitted to

enjoy certain lands free of all conditions of service to Govern
have been all now treated as personal. When the Polliems
reduced at the cession of the territories to the East India Co
certain pensions and Inam lands were granted to the ex-P
for their subsistence. Although a vague impression appears
prevailed at the time that they were liable to be called out
service during emergencies, the occasion for such services ve
arose, and the Inams have been practically enjoyed as pers
Kanungos were the Provincial, and the Despandyas t
Registrars or Revenue Accountants. The Desmukhs
officers of police and revenue, corresponding generally
Their offices were abolished at a very early stage o
administration, and the Inams granted to or allowed
them being of a personal character have been en
ordinary Inams.

The Inams held under Class VI are considerable
value, chiefly in the Northern Circars and the Southe
Madura. Before their cession to the British these
mostly held by Zemindars or Poligars who exercise
sovereignty within their limited estates. They alie
only for the maintenance of Brahmins and of their o
dependents, but also to a large number of their househ
to numerous men of rank of their own caste. Who
held on conditions of service, which was neither re
for under the British administration. Of this ch
Bissois and Doratanams in the hill tracts of Ganjam
the Mukhasas of the Kistna District, the Amaram
the Umligas of Salem, and the Jivitams of Madura.
have been now enfranchised, a higher rate of quit-re
on those which were held on the condition of actual
miscellaneous Inams, such as those held by Desayi
and other heads of castes, and by certain classes of s
Tambalas, Anakalas, Matapatis, and Jirars in the Ce
services connected with which have long ceased to
been also enfranchised and converted into private p

The seventh class comprises the Inams held by
class of peons who discharged police, military, and
revenue duties. They were called into existence by
remunerated them by assignments of land and pa
while on actual service; they were chiefly employe
inaccessible parts of the country. On the introducti
rule they were generally left in quiet possession of
were but seldom called out for duty. The Inams of t

all enfranchised. The Kattubadis are found in the greatest ers in the Ceded Districts and North Arcot.

Inams embraced in the eighth and ninth classes are those of the servants, revenue and police, and of the village artizans. These ply recorded by the officers of the late Inam Commission. The re continued on the existing tenure, and no steps could be egard to the former until some decision was come to as to the on which the village establishments of the Presidency were d and remodelled. The operations which have since taken gard to the revision of village establishments have been l in a previous division of this Section.

to dealing with Inams proper, the Commission investi- osed of a large number of anomalies which had for figured the revenue system of the Presidency. These have greatly tended to simplify the revenue adminis- veral districts, and the discussion and final decision of uted rights between the Government and Zemindars, lars and Inamdars and their tenants, have facilitated cedure of district officers in no small degree.

ommission continued as a separate department up to 9, when, the bulk of the work having been completed, ssing necessity for the reduction of Imperial expendi- ved to abolish the department, and the Inam Commis- d to submit his general report. The work which he was entrusted to a member of the Board of Revenue, d Inam Commissioner *pro formâ* and to satisfy legal y the 1st July 1870 some 28,000 further cases were he work which remained at the time of transfer was it was found necessary to continue the appointment he Board as Inam Commissioner. References are still by Collectors in Inam matters, scattered cases still ve remained undisposed of owing to the absence of causes, and title-deeds for Village Service Inams e revision of the establishments coincident with new be issued.

er of Inams confirmed, the quit-rent charged by the and the cost of the Commission from its commence- t date are shown below :—

—	Total Number of Inams.	Area.	Assessment.	Old Jodi	Quit-rent newly charged.	C
		ACRES.	RS.	RS.	RS.	
From the commencement up to 30th June 1866.	367,427	5,977,305	90,90,881	842,765	10,62,767	
From 1st July 1866 to 31st March 1878.	39,530	277,022	7,93,324	57,337	1,84,747	
From 1st April 1878 to 31st March 1879.	47	1,252	1,671	58	354	
Total ...	407,004	6,255,579	98,85,876	900,160	12,47,868	
	Assessment of Inams fully assessed up to 1866.				1,13,96	
	Assessment of Inams fully assessed since.				5,3	
				Total ...	13,6	

Of the above-mentioned amount of quit-rent newly ch
3,46,614* represent the sum charged on Village Service
chised. The general success which has attended the pro
Commission can best be judged by the very large prop
interested who accepted the terms proffered by Governm
from the figures given down to 1866 by which time t
work had been completed, that these terms were decline
cases, and that the rejections involved the temporary
Government of not more than Rupees 35,885; this sum w
fixed for enfranchisement, and represents a little less th
on the whole amount of additional quit-rent imposed.
in the rules authorizing the conversion of the absolute t
chisement into a freehold by the redemption of qui
years' purchase was taken advantage of to a very trifl
Rupees 666 of quit-rent having been redeemed in th
1866. No other result was to be expected as 12 p
viewed as the ordinary rate of interest procurable a
the country for money lent on undoubted security. Th
therefore be likely to invest largely in redemption of
would return but 5 per cent. on the capital sunk.
that the total cost of the Commission since its format
exceeded 13 lakhs of rupees; a sum the reverse of ex
highly satisfactory results attained are considered.
in which not less than two and a half million pe
measure interested, and extending to nearly 6¼ m

* Godavari ... ...
Kurnool ... ...
Trichinopoly ... ...
Tinnevelly ... ...

, which was lately held on defective and doubtful titles, and which to the revenue less than one-tenth of the regulated land assess- has now been confirmed to the holders on indefeasible Govern- itles ; and the measure has resulted in a clear gain to the revenue t 13½ lakhs of rupees per annum. The alienation of State has been considerably reduced, and at the same time content- been diffused throughout the whole body of the Inamdars.

WARDS' ESTATES.

lation V of 1804, the Members of the Board of Revenue a Court of Wards with authority to take charge of ving by succession on heirs incapacitated by minority, y, from administering their own affairs, provided that rned be persons paying revenue or rent direct to Govern- where lunacy may occur at some time other than that he Collector of the district is empowered by Act XXXV n 3, Clause 2, to move the Civil Court to put the estate f the Court of Wards. Property under the Court ed or sold for arrears of public revenue ; if one year the collections, the deficiency to the public purse has to the surplus collections of other years. The first step ge must be sanctioned by Government, but subse- he Court of Wards administers the estates on its own The estates are restored when, in the opinion of the lity has ceased. The estates are managed through mploy special establishments at the cost of the estates. appointed under the Act to take charge of the property every establishment. There is also in all cases a r otherwise, whose duty it is to attend to the private k and to administer that part of the income which is ward's private use. A commission of 1½ per cent. on ducting from these all establishment and maramut nto the public funds as consideration for general portant public works which require execution on the hitherto carried out, under sanction of the Govern- blic Works Department, the Public Works executive ade of Overseers being provided for in the estimate, ion being gratuitous. In minor cases the Collectors t the works themselves with special and sometimes eering establishments. It is in contemplation that the

Court should employ its own public works establishments hereafter in all cases. They have already Engineers of their own in Parla Kimedi, and in Ramnad and other estates in the Madura District. Each estate sends up an annual budget to the Court, to be dealt with separately. The funds as raised from the estate are paid into the Government treasury, and accounts are there kept for each estate. The public funds cannot be indented on by an estate except by special loan. When the accounts show a large deposit for any one estate at any treasury the amount is remitted to the Bank of Madras through the Court. The Court keep a separate account for each estate, but the Bank of Madras keep only one account in the name of the Court. Surplus funds are invested in Government paper. In the management of the funds of an estate under the Court, the object held in view is rather to improve the estate than to attempt to accumulate savings so as to make a purse for a ward on his succeeding to the estate in person. Under Act XXI of 1855 the Court have also control of the education of every male minor whose property has been taken under their management with that of such minor's younger brother or brothers. The wards are generally educated, either by a tutor or by attending school, at the head-quarters of districts, where they can be under the eye of the Collector. There is a penalty for aiding and abetting the marriage of a minor made without the consent of the Court. Disqualified proprietors cannot adopt children without the Court's consent. Appendix Statement No. X at the end of this volume shows the estates under management at the end of Fasli 1287, with the names, age, and sex of the wards, the date of assuming management, date when they will probably be restored, and the rent-roll according to the best information.

SECTION III.

PROTECTION.

LEGISLATING AUTHORITY AND GOVERNMENT LAW OFFICERS.

Council for making laws and regulations.

UNDER the Indian Councils Act of 1861 (24 & 25 Victoria, Cap. 67), the local legislating authority for the Presidency of Madras is vested in the Governor in Council; the Council, at meetings held for the purpose of making laws and regulations, consisting of the Ordinary Members with the addition of the Advocate-General and such other persons, not less than four or more than eight in number, as the Governor may nominate. Not less than one-half of the persons so nominated are non-officials. At a meeting of the Council for this special purpose, the Governor, or in his absence the Senior Civil Ordinary Member of Council, presides, and business can only be transacted if the Governor or some Ordinary Member of Council and at least four other Members are present. In the case of a difference of opinion the President has, if necessary, a casting vote. The business of the meeting is confined to the consideration of measures already introduced into the Council, or to granting sanction for the introduction of new measures. No measure affecting the public revenues can be introduced without the previous sanction of the Governor. Every law or regulation made by the Council must, before it comes into force, receive the assent of the Governor in the first instance, and subsequently that of the Governor-General, and is eventually subject to be disallowed by the Crown.

—Limits of its jurisdiction.

Except with the sanction of the Governor-General previously obtained, no measure can be introduced, (1), Affecting the public debt of India, or the customs duties, or any other tax or duty now in force and imposed by the authority of the Government of India for the general purposes of such Government; (2), Regulating any of the current coin, or the issue of any bills, notes, or other paper currency; (3), Regulating the conveyance of letters by the Post Office or

messages by the Electric Telegraph within the Presidency; (4), Altering in any way the Penal Code of India as established by Act of the Governor-General in Council, No. XLV of 1860; (5), Affecting the religion or religious rites and usages of any class of Her Majesty's subjects in India; (6), Affecting the discipline or maintenance of any part of Her Majesty's Military or Naval Forces; (7), Regulating patents or copyrights; (8), Affecting the relations of the Government with Foreign Princes or States.

—Rules of the Council.

Rules for the conduct of business at the Meetings of Council have been made under the provisions of Section 37 of the Act. The most important of these relate to the introduction of Bills. When leave has been obtained for the introduction of a Bill either from the Council when sitting or from the Governor during the adjournment, the Bill is printed, together with a Statement of Objects and Reasons, and a copy is furnished to each Member of the Council. On the day fixed for the introduction of a Bill, or on any subsequent day, the principles of the Bill and its general provisions may be discussed, and if necessary it may be referred to a Select Committee for report. All reports of Select Committees, as well as the Bill and the Statement of Objects and Reasons, must be published in the Official Gazette, and copies furnished to all the Members of the Council before the measure is brought up for final consideration.

Advocate-General.

The principal law officer of the Government is the Advocate-General. His duties, briefly put, are—(1), to advise the Government upon legal matters referred to him; (2), to appear for the Government in legal proceedings on the Original Side of the High Court in which the Government is interested; and (3), to appear at the Madras Sessions and prosecute in cases of murder, counterfeiting coin, and offences by Government servants against the Government.

Government Pleader.

The duties of the Government Pleader as at present constituted are—(1), to appear before the High Court, Appellate Side, when instructed to do so by Government in all appeals in suits in which Government or officers of Government are parties; (2), to appear before the same tribunal in support of convictions in criminal appeals when directed to do so by Magistrates or by the High Court, or in appeals from orders of acquittal when directed to do so by Government; (3), to appear for Government in civil or criminal cases in Mofussil Courts when instructed to do so; (4), to advise Government or the Board of Revenue on legal questions arising out of suits, &c., in the mofussil.

Crown Prosecutor.

The Crown Prosecutor is Standing Counsel to Government in criminal cases arising within the original jurisdiction of the High Court. It is his duty to appear for the prosecution on behalf of Government and conduct all the cases at the High Court Sessions; except that in

cases of murder, and certain other serious offences, in which the Advocate-General is required to appear on behalf of Government, he acts as the Advocate-General's junior. It is also the duty of the Crown Prosecutor to appear as Counsel for Government and conduct Government prosecutions before the Presidency Town Magistrates; the Government Solicitor furnishing him with the necessary briefs. The Crown Prosecutor is the officer to whom commitments for trial before the High Court are made by the committing Magistrates. The Crown Prosecutor is also ex-officio Public Prosecutor for the purposes of the Presidency Magistrates' Act, 1877, and, as such, when directed by the Government to do so, presents appeals to the High Court from orders of acquittal, or dismissal, or discharge, made by Presidency Town Magistrates.

Government Vakeels.

To each District Court is attached a Government Vakeel, who is a member of the local Bar. He is required to appear and act in all Government suits in the Courts of the District Judges' stations. Besides the regulated fees in each suit he receives a salary of Rupees 21 a month.

Government Solicitor.

The functions and duties of the Government Solicitor are shortly these:—to advise the different departments and officers of Government in matters on which the opinion of the Advocate-General may not be required; in cases where that officer's opinion is required, to lay the papers before him, and on receipt of his opinion to forward a copy of it to Government; to prepare contracts for the several departments of Government, and all deeds and conveyances to Government; to furnish the Crown Prosecutor with the necessary briefs in Police cases in which that officer has to appear, *i.e.*, all cases in which the prosecution is instituted or carried on by or under the orders or with the sanction of Government; to appear at the Police Courts and instruct the Crown Prosecutor in such cases; to send the necessary briefs to the Advocate-General for the quarterly Sessions of the High Court in all cases of murder, coining and other cases in which the Crown is immediately interested, and to appear in Court on the trial of such cases; and to institute, defend and conduct all civil suits and proceedings by or against Government, and where the sanction of Government has been obtained by or against its officers.

Clerk of the Crown.

The duties of Clerk of the Crown are—(1), to draw up indictments against prisoners committed to stand their trial at the High Court Sessions; (2), to make copies of all depositions, exhibits, &c., for prosecuting and defending Counsel, or others employed in prosecution or defence; (3), to draw up warrants, and sentences passed on prisoners during the sessions; (4), to prepare lists of special and petty jurors, and settle all doubtful cases arising under the lists; (5), to draw up

and issue jury rules; (6), to take recognizances of witnesses, and bail bonds of prisoners; (7), to issue subpœnas for all witnesses on behalf of prisoners in jail, prosecutors, and the Crown; and (8), to register the proceedings of Courts-martial.

Administrator-General.

The Administrator-General is appointed by the local Government, and must be a member of the Bar of England or Ireland or of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland. He is not an officer of the High Court, but obtains from that Court letters of administration authorizing him to deal with and dispose of estates committed to his custody. The jurisdiction of the Administrator-General extends over the whole Presidency including Travancore, Cochin, Puducottah, Bunganapalli, Sundur, and the Nizam's Dominions. He gives general security to the Secretary of State for the due execution of his office, and no special security is required to be given by him to the High Court when administrations are granted by that Court to him. The duties of the office are detailed in Government of India Act II of 1874. Under Section 15 the Administrator-General is entitled generally to letters of administration, unless they are granted to the next of kin of the deceased. By Section 16 he is required within a reasonable time after he shall have had notice that a person has died (other than a Hindu, Mahomedan, or Buddhist, or a person exempted under the Indian Succession Act, 1865, Section 332, from the operation of that Act) and that the deceased has left assets within the Presidency, to take steps to apply for letters of administration, and this whether the deceased has left a will or not provided that the assets are of greater value than Rupees 1,000, and provided that no person shall within a month after the death have applied within the Presidency for probate of a will or for letters of administration of the estate. If the assets do not exceed 1,000 rupees in value in the whole, the Administrator-General is not bound to act, but he may either grant a certificate of administration to some person entitled to a share of the effects of the deceased or take charge of the estate himself without letters of administration. In certain cases such as where danger is to be apprehended of misappropriation, deterioration or waste of an estate, the Administrator-General may be directed by the Court to apply for letters of administration to the effects of any person whether Hindu, Mahomedan, Buddhist or not, and power is also given to the Administrator-General to collect and hold all such assets until the right of succession or administration is ascertained; and if no person appears according to the practice of the Court and entitles himself to probate of the will, or grant of administration as next of kin of deceased, or if the person obtaining the order of administration neglects to give the security required of him, the Court is bound to grant letters of administration to the Administrator-General. Any private executor or

administrator may, with the consent of the Administrator-General, by an instrument in writing, under his hand, transfer all estates, effects, and interests vested in him by virtue of such probate or letters to the Administrator-General, and the Administrator-General shall have the rights and be subject to the liabilities which he would have had and to which he would have been subject if probate or letters of administration had been originally granted to him. As soon as the Administrator-General takes charge of the estate, the fact is advertised in the Gazette and in the public papers, and creditors are called upon to prove their claims. They are required to state the amounts and other particulars, and to support their claims by such evidence as, under the circumstances of the case, the Administrator-General is reasonably entitled to require. If a claimant fail to do this within one month of the date of the institution of any suit he is liable to pay the cost of the suit, and if in any suit judgment is pronounced in favor of the plaintiff, he is nevertheless entitled only to payment out of the assets equally and rateably with the other creditors. The Administrator-General like any other executor or administrator keeps the assets for a reasonable time to answer the claims of creditors. This time is fixed at one year, but where the case permits of it, the account is closed earlier. Like any other executor or administrator he is bound to pay all creditors rateably or preferentially according to the law governing the distribution. No claim can be made upon him in respect of any assets paid or delivered by him to any legatee, or to any person entitled on distribution without notice of the claim. The following are preferential payments :—(1), Funeral expenses; (2), death-bed charges; (3), fee for medical attendance; (4), board and lodging for one month prior to death; (5), expenses for obtaining probate or letters of administration; and (6), wages for services rendered to deceased within three months of his death by any laborer, artizan, or domestic servant. After this comes payment of other debts, which are on an equal footing. The Administrator-General is bound to keep the accounts prescribed by the Act and to allow persons entitled so to do to inspect them. He is bound to furnish half-yearly schedules of estates under his charge in form prescribed by the Act, and these schedules are published in the *Fort St. George Gazette*. Three copies are sent to Government for transmission to the Secretary of State for India for the information of persons in England who are interested in the matter. The Administrator-General of Madras is entitled to a commission of 5 per cent. (except in the case of officers and soldiers dying on service when the commission is 3 per cent.) on the assets, and no person other than the Administrator-General acting officially is entitled to charge any commission or agency charges for any thing done as executor or administrator under any probate or

letters of administration granted by the Supreme or High Court in Madras since the passing of Act II of 1850, or by any Court under the Indian Succession Act, 1865.

Sheriff of Madras.

The Sheriff of Madras is appointed by the Governor in Council under the same Letters Patent which established the Supreme Court of Judicature at Madras in 1800. That portion of those Letters Patent which relates to the office of Sheriff of Madras has not been repealed by the Letters Patent establishing the present High Court. The appointment is an annual one and dates from the 20th December. The duties of the Sheriff, as defined by the Letters Patent of 1800, are "to execute all the writs, summonses, rules, orders, warrants, commands, and process of the Court, and make return of the same together with the manner of the execution thereof to the Court." Section 636 of the Code of Civil Procedure, however, provides that "Notices to produce documents, summonses to witnesses, and every other judicial process issued in the exercise of the ordinary or extraordinary original civil jurisdiction of the High Court, and of its matrimonial, testamentary, and intestate jurisdiction, except summonses to defendants issued under Section 64, Writs of execution and notices under Section 553 (Notices of Appeal) may be served by the Attorneys in the suit, or by persons employed by them, or by such other persons as the High Court by any rule or order from time to time directs." Rule 15 of the Rules of the High Court, Madras, Original Side, dated the 3rd May 1878, contains a similar provision, with a proviso that "parties appearing in person must cause all notices, summonses, writs, and other process to be served by the Sheriff." The Sheriff also serves summonses to witnesses and executes attachments and other process issued by the Court for the relief of Insolvent Debtors and by the Crown Side of the High Court. He presides over the preparation of the annual lists of persons qualified and liable to serve on juries, and issues summonses to the jurors who are to serve at each quarterly Criminal Sessions of the High Court. He attends personally in Court during the continuance of the Sessions, and is responsible for the maintenance of discipline and order in Court. He convenes and attends personally at public meetings.

Coroner of Madras.

The office of Coroner of Madras was first created about the year 1800. The duties are now regulated by the Coroner's Act, No. IV of 1871, under which the Coroner has to inquire into cases of death occasioned by accident, homicide, suicide, or suddenly by means unknown, and into the cause of the death of any person being a prisoner dying in jail. The Police authorities bring to his notice all cases of death occasioned in the way just mentioned, and he thereupon orders a jury to be assembled at the spot where the body is and holds an inquest on

view of the body. Madras is divided into four Medical districts, and the Surgeon in charge of the district in which an inquest is to be held is generally summoned by the Coroner to give professional evidence. The Coroner's jurisdiction extends over an area of 28 miles and is conterminous with the Presidency Police and Municipal limits. Murders in the Presidency town are rare, for during the eleven years 1866 to 1876, only 35 cases have occurred in which the Coroner has been called upon to hold inquest. Drowning seems to be the mode most resorted to by suicides; since the year 1868 to the end of 1876 there have been 212 cases. During the same period there have been 26 cases of suicide by hanging, and only 8 by cutting the throat. Suicide by poison shows only 13 cases during this period. During the first twenty years after the creation of the office 413 inquests were held, or an average of about 20 a year. For the twelve years from 1840 to 1852 there was a total of 1,217, or an average of 101 a year. For the twenty years from 1853 to 1872 the number had reached 3,403, or an average of 170 a year. For the four years from 1873 to 1876 the total number of inquests was 707, or an average of 176 a year. The number of inquests held in the two years 1877 and 1878 was 497 or an average of 248½ a year, exclusive of 65 adjournments.

POLICE.

History of the department.

The present Police organization in the Madras Presidency has been in existence for a little less than twenty years. The report of the Torture Commission in 1855 made certain what had for some time previously been a matter of rumour and discussion, namely that there was urgent necessity for Police reform in this Presidency. The Mofussil Police then existing were described by the Commission in very disparaging terms and a reform was at once projected. The Court of Directors in 1856 concurred in the views put forward by the Local Government, and the establishment of a department distinct from the Revenue and Magisterial departments, consisting of a Chief Commissioner with 20 District Superintendents and 20 Assistant Superintendents was sanctioned in a despatch of 9th June 1857. Mr. William Robinson of the Madras Civil Service, who had minutely studied the question of police organization in England and elsewhere, was appointed Chief Commissioner in 1858 and subsequently took the designation of Inspector-General of Police. The new constabulary was introduced in the District of North Arcot in 1859, and early in 1860 the work of reorganization was extended to all districts except those of the Northern

Circars, where the measure was postponed till 1861. The new force was organized very much on the Irish model.

The force as now constituted consists of— Total strength of force.

Inspector-General and Supervising Staff (3 Deputy Inspectors-General and 1 Assistant Inspector-General)	5
Commissioner and Deputy Commissioners, Madras Town ...	3
Superintendents	20
Assistant Superintendents	20
Inspectors	388
Sub-Inspectors	31
Constabulary of all ranks	22,691
Office Establishments and other servants (not Police Officers) ...	246
Total ...	23,404

Of the above the following are employed on purely State services :—

Salt Preventive Force	1,897
Land Customs Force	170
Jail Guards	1,143
Total ...	3,210

In addition to the above, 179 Policemen are supplied to banks, public companies, and private individuals on payment. The highest rank of constable is Head Constable, and the Constables below that grade are divided into 1st class, 2nd class and 3rd class. The Sub-Inspectors are a probationary grade.

The whole Police force of the Presidency, including the Police of the City of Madras, is under the direction and control of the Inspector-General of Police. The detailed management of the Police of the Madras Town is entrusted to the charge of a Commissioner of Police with two Deputy Commissioners under him. The mofussil districts are formed into ranges, and each range is placed under the immediate supervision of a Deputy Inspector-General. There are three ranges embracing each several districts as follows :— Distribution of establishment and offices.

Northern Range ...	Ganjam.
	Vizagapatam.
	Jeypore.
	Godavari.
	Kistna.
Central Range ...	Nellore.
	Bellary.
	Kurnool.
	Cuddapah.
	North Arcot.
	Chingleput.
	South Arcot.
Southern Range ...	Tanjore.
	Trichinopoly.
	Madura.
	Tinnevelly.
	Salem.
	Coimbatore.
	Malabar.
	South Canara.

Each district is under the immediate management of a Superintendent, who has one or two Assistants according to the area, population, and local circumstances. Each district is divided into several divisions

corresponding, as far as possible, with the boundaries of the revenue taluks and ranges of Subordinate Magistrates, and each division is in charge of an Inspector of Police. The chief office of the whole Police is at the Presidency Town, under the immediate charge of the Assistant Inspector-General with an office establishment. The district offices are at the head stations of the district, under the immediate management of the Superintendent, who is allowed an Inspector styled the Head-quarter Inspector, with a number of Police subordinates employed for the transaction of office work. The head station of a taluk is selected as the central station of the Police division, and also the head-quarters of the Divisional Inspector.

Discipline. The members of the force are regularly drilled, and the corps generally is so organized as to be capable of supplying on an emergency a small body of irregulars for quasi-military purposes. The drill is that for the Native Army up to manual and platoon exercises, with the addition of baton exercise and lining streets to clear crowds. Punishments of the force are by conviction before Magistrates under the Police Act No. XXIV of 1859 and the Penal Code, or else by departmental notice. No Police officer convicted by a Criminal Court of any offence and sentenced to imprisonment is re-admitted to the service without the special order of the Inspector-General. Even if acquitted under such circumstances a Police officer is liable to be discharged from the service on the ground that there is moral evidence of his guilt. Police officers sentenced by a Criminal Court to fine without other punishment are not on that account dismissed, unless the circumstances of the case are such as render it necessary. Departmental punishments are made by black marks, fine, reduction, and dismissal. All punishments are entered in a defaulter book. Appeal in all cases lies from the decision of the Superintendent to the Deputy Inspector-General and from him to the Inspector-General.

Uniform. The uniform of the force is worn at all times by every individual of the force, unless temporarily dispensed with under special orders and for the better performance of some special duty. Two suits of white drill clothing are supplied to each Constable and Head Constable yearly. Inspectors, District Superintendents and their Assistants supply their own uniform according to an approved pattern. The different grades below Inspectors are distinguished by badges as in the Native Army. One-third of the force is armed with smooth-bore carbines, and two-thirds with swords. Every man is provided with a baton. The jail guards and reserve at district head-quarters are armed with carbines. Every article of dress or appointment, lodgings, &c., which may have been supplied to a Police officer at public cost has to be immediately delivered up or vacated when he ceases to belong to the Police force or has been suspended.

Education.

At the head-quarters of each district is a school supervised by a specially selected Inspector or Head Constable, and through this all recruits have to pass before being sent to divisions. Station-house Officers are called in from time to time to go through the examination prescribed for their rank. Three courses are laid down.

Enlistment, appointments, &c.

Every member of the constabulary is enlisted on condition of serving and residing wherever he may be required; but for practical purposes the general body is broken up into district corps, and is recruited and worked as so many separate bodies within their respective districts. The men are generally for obvious reasons retained within the districts with which they are respectively best acquainted. Physical fitness has to be certified to by the Zillah Surgeon. No man is entertained who is older than 25 years, except under special circumstances, and then only under sanction of the Inspector-General. A Police officer devotes his whole time to the Police service, and takes part in no trade or calling unless expressly permitted. He conforms himself implicitly to all rules which are from time to time made for the regulation and good order of the service. No Police officer is allowed, under any pretext whatever, to have money transactions with any other Police officer. They may not withdraw from the service without distinct permission, or until the expiration of two months after giving warning of their intention to do so. They may not on any occasion, or under any pretext whatever, directly or indirectly take or receive any present, gratuity or fee without the express permission of the District Superintendent. The District Magistrate is invariably consulted with regard to the entertainment of Inspectors, and his opinion is submitted to the Inspector-General of Police through the Deputy Inspector-General of Police with the nominal roll, which is not passed unless this preliminary step has been taken. The examination for Inspectors is one of the Uncovenanted Service Special Tests. It is the same as that for Sub-Magistrates, with the addition of a departmental paper. The District Superintendents of Police are entertained as probationers at first. Before being declared qualified for the service they are required to pass such an examination as proves that they possess a really good colloquial familiarity with the vernacular of the district. They are likewise required to pass an examination in Criminal Law and Law of Evidence. Assistant Superintendents are required to pass the same examination tests as Superintendents.

Classes from which recruited.

The men are taken as they present themselves from the local rural and agricultural classes provided they come up to standard measurements, which are generally the same as those for the Native Army, and provided they can read and write. Low caste men are rarely enlisted unless in exceptional places, as for instance in hill tracts. The army

for some while furnished the Officers, and a few retired British Officers have joined since that supply ceased; but at present there is no recognized source from which Officers can be regularly drawn. The following statement shows the castes of Police men admitted during an average of three years, 1876 to 1878 :—

Districts.	Christians.	Mahomedans.	Hindus.						
			Brahmins.	Rajpoots.	Nairs.	Teers.	Oriyahs.	Pariahs.	Hindus of all other castes.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Madras Town	79	335	37	56	...	...	...	106	677
Ganjam	19	80	5	8	...	...	517	10	666
Vizagapatam	15	116	56	16	...	...	121	18	984
Jeypore	4	12	6	7	...	...	192	1	198
Godavari	18	439	28	28	...	...	...	34	779
Kistna	9	435	55	49	...	...	...	2	713
Total ...	65	1,082	150	108	...	...	830	65	3,340
Nellore	13	589	38	69	...	...	...	4	645
Kurnool	8	516	46	79	...	...	...	1	399
Bellary	22	626	67	56	...	...	...	27	638
Cuddapah	9	540	32	36	...	...	...	1	562
North Arcot	19	536	48	37	...	...	...	10	874
Chingleput	65	339	15	24	...	...	...	20	568
South Arcot	38	441	16	36	...	...	...	8	671
Total ...	174	3,587	262	337	...	...	...	71	4,357
Tanjore	34	130	21	24	...	...	...	...	1,220
Trichinopoly	28	219	14	14	...	...	1	10	583
Madura	21	320	28	8	...	...	...	10	851
Tinnevelly	79	190	8	...	...	...	...	5	728
Salem	23	406	110	21	...	...	...	3	691
Coimbatore	29	321	70	40	...	...	...	6	604
Nilgiri	13	57	2	8	...	...	...	4	69
Malabar	68	*228	3	21	1,035	213	...	19	*30
South Canara	168	*120	29	22	1	78	12	...	†302
Total ...	463	1,991	285	158	1,036	291	13	57	5,078
Grand Total ...	781	6,995	734	659	1,036	291	843	299	13,452

Pay and privileges.

The following is the scale of pay for the force :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Inspector-General of Police	2,500	0	0
Commissioner of Police, Madras Town	1,500	0	0
Deputy Inspectors-General of Police	1,200	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 1st Grade	1,000	0	0
Assistant Inspector-General of Police	900	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 2nd Grade	800	0	0
Deputy Commissioner of Police, Madras Town ...	750	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 3rd Grade	700	0	0
Assistant Superintendents of Police, Hill Range ...	600	0	0
Native Deputy Commissioner of Police, Madras, and Assistant Superintendents of Police	500	0	0
First-class Inspectors acting as Asst. Supt. of Police.	400	0	0
Inspectors of Police, 1st Class	200	0	0
Do. 2nd Class	150	0	0
Do. 3rd Class	100	0	0
Head Serjeant, Madras Town	85	0	0

* Includes 88 Moplahs. † Including 7 Moplahs.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Inspectors of Police, 4th Class	75	0	0
Serjeants, Madras Town	60	0	0
Chief Constables, Coimbatore and Trichinopoly ...	55	0	0
Sub-Inspector, Ooty	52	0	0
Inspectors of Police, 5th Class	50	0	0
Do. 6th Class	40	0	0
Sub-Inspectors	30	0	0
European Head Constables ... ... 37 to	30	0	0
Head Constables, 1st Grade	25	0	0
Do. 2nd Grade	20	0	0
Do. 3rd Grade	15	0	0
Do. 4th Grade	12	0	0
Constables, 1st Class, Madras Town	9	0	0
Do. do. in Districts	8	0	0
Do. 2nd Class	7	0	0
Do. 3rd Class	6	8	0
Village Watchers ... ... 3 to	2	8	0

Every Inspector is mounted and a part of his salary is received in the form of horse allowance. Military officers come under the general furlough regulations. The Officers who are not military men and all others whose pay is 20 rupees per mensem come under the leave rules for the Uncovenanted service. Constables and the lower ranks are granted occasional casual or sick leave by Superintendents according to circumstances. The Superannuation Funds established under Acts XXIV of 1859 and XIII of 1856, and amalgamated together by Act VIII of 1867, have been abolished by Act X of 1869. To members of the Police Force on pay above Rupees 20 a month pensions and gratuities are awarded under the rules applicable to Uncovenanted servants of Government in other departments; except that service in the Police counts under a special rule of the Pension Code as eligible service, even though the man rose from the ranks on pay below Rupees 10 a month.

Hutting.

The lower ranks, Head Constables and men, are required to reside in lines or huts near together, and in the immediate vicinity of the station-house wherever possible. This arrangement is indispensable for proper discipline and supervision, and in order that the men may be at hand to meet emergency and ordinary duty. Hutting is provided by Government and rent is charged to provide for the necessary repairs. Inspectors of all grades generally provide their own lodging, but are required to reside within the limits of their range of duty, about which they are expected to be continually moving. Where quarters have been built by Government, Inspectors pay rent.

General duties.

The duties undertaken by the Police are, the preservation of the peace, the prevention of crimes and offences, the detection and apprehension of offenders, the discovery of stolen property, the collection of evidence against persons accused of grave crimes and the bringing them before the Magistracy and Courts, the apprehending and watching of

vagrants and suspicious characters, the patrol of the country and public roads, the prevention of nuisances, laying information before the Magistracy of offences of a public nature committed against any existing law, the inspection and verification of weights and measures, the management of public pounds, the service and execution of summonses and warrants and other lawful processes and orders issued by the Magistracy or Courts in any criminal matter, the safe custody of prisoners under trial or remanded by the Magistracy, escort and guarding of treasure and convicts, and maintaining a constant observation of every part of the country with a view to daily transmission and mutual communication of authentic intelligence on matters of public importance. Besides these ordinary duties, the Police undertake the guarding of jails, the guarding of salt-pans and platforms, the prevention of smuggling on foreign frontiers, the guarding of distilleries under the Excise Act, the protection of marine traffic in the harbour of Madras, and the working of the Municipal, Cantonment, and Contagious Diseases Acts. The duties formerly performed by the Meriah agency in Ganjam are now performed by the Police, who occupy all the hill tracts in the Northern Circars. The Police also hold all the frontier posts formerly held by detachments of Madras troops.

Particulars as to detection.

There is no separate detective branch. In grave cases where the ordinary Police fail to obtain clues, officers of superior rank and special aptitude are detailed to work them. A careful and accurate registration of known depredators, wandering gangs, and of the criminal classes generally is maintained throughout the Presidency, and is of the greatest assistance in tracing crime. The Village Police are also of much use.

Particulars as to inquiry.

The Police make inquiries as far as possible by means of personal investigation, as opposed to the practice of summoning parties to the station-house. If a disclosure be volunteered by any person in the custody of a Police officer, the latter makes a memorandum of the nature of the disclosure, in the precise words used by the prisoner. The Police officer reads the memorandum over to the prisoner if possible, but does not take the prisoner's signature on the paper. The memorandum is made with a view to the Police officer refreshing his memory as to the precise words used, in the event of his being required to give oral evidence of the admissions made, under Section 27 of the Evidence Act. The Police are directed never to prosecute upon a confession alone, however spontaneously given. The only use they are allowed to make of admissions made by the accused is to follow up the clue so given.

Particulars as to arrest and report.

"Cognizable" crime is defined by the law, and is such as the Police may inquire into without reference by magisterial authority. "Uncognizable" crime can be investigated by the Police only on receiving orders

from the Magistracy. The former consists as a rule of grave offences against the person, property, or the State ; and are mostly the cases in which the Magistracy are instructed ordinarily to issue a warrant in the first instance for the apprehension of an offender. The latter consist of minor offences, and are such as the Magistracy are directed ordinarily to issue summonses for. The following table shows Police procedure as to arrest, report, &c., under cognizable cases, non-cognizable cases, and cases where parties are detained by the Police :—

Case true or false.	Accused, arrested or not.		Procedure.	Report to whom sent.
			Procedure in Cognizable Cases.	
True	Arrested ...	1	Send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with received charge sheet and prisoner to	Magistrate having jurisdiction.
True	Not arrested	2	Send original complaint or Magisterial reference with an occurrence report giving details as far as known to	Do.
		3	*N.B.*—In all cases of crime send special crime memo. to head-quarter office. In sub-division, send to Assistant Superintendent.	
		4	Supplemental occurrence reports to head-quarters need only be sent in very serious cases where deemed requisite.	
False or true but evidence insufficient.	Arrested ...	,,,	Release prisoner, send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with bail-bond and referred charge sheet fully recording reasons for disbelieving the case to the Magistrate through the Inspector. Inspector will give such orders as he deems fit to his Station-house Officer on a separate paper, and having recorded a copy thereof on the referred charge sheet will transmit all the papers without delay to the	Magistrate having jurisdiction, Section 125.
False	Not arrested	5	Send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with referred charge sheet to Magistrate through Inspector who will act as in Rule 4.	Magistrate having jurisdiction, Section 147.
			Procedure in Non-cognizable Cases referred by Magistrates.	
True	Not arrested	6	Send Magistrate's reference with occurrence report to	Magistrate by whom case was referred.
False	Do. ...	7	Send Magistrate's reference with referred charge sheet to Magistrate through Inspector who acts as in Rule 4 to	Do.
			When the accused is detained under Section 93.	
	Detained ...	8	If the real name and address be not ascertained within 24 hours, send the accused with original complaint or reference and received charge sheet to	Magistrate having jurisdiction.
		9	If the real name and address have been ascertained within 24 hours, release him forthwith on his own recognizance, which with original complaint or reference and received charge sheet send to	Do.

Particulars as to attendance at Courts.

Each superior officer in charge of a case sees it through the Court of the Magistrate trying it. Superintendents and Assistants are specially enjoined to attend the monthly criminal sessions at headquarters.

Particulars as to salt.

The Salt Police are to a certain extent a separate body to whom the ordinary rules of the department as to height, reading and writing, drill, &c. are not made so strictly applicable. A portion of the Salt Police are enlisted during the manufacturing season only, and when it is over they are discharged.

Particulars as to jails.

At each jail there is a permanent Police guard furnishing the usual fixed number of sentries over the buildings day and night, and this is relieved weekly. Guards are also furnished by the Police over gangs extramurally employed at the rate of one Policeman to seven convicts. The following is a statement of prisoners and guards on an average for the three years 1876 to 1878 :—

Ranges.	Districts.	Average Number of Prisoners.	Police Guards. Number.	Police Guards. Cost.
1	2	3	4	5
				Rs. A. P.
	Madras City	694	60	6,668 14 6
Northern Range.	Ganjam	417	71	5,792 12 9
	Vizagapatan	434	80	6,451 2 8
	Jeypore	...	...	...
	Godavari	1,255	104	8,624 3 9
	Kistna	383	56	5,134 7 1
	Total ...	2,489	311	26,002 10 3
Central Range.	Nellore	914	131	13,159 7 2
	Kurnool	623	91	8,273 0 5
	Bellary	1,038	140	14,401 11 11
	Cuddapah	463	66	5,970 9 4
	North Arcot	1,337	165	15,330 4 7
	Chingleput	392	57	4,896 1 11
	South Arcot	781	94	7,784 7 3
	Total ...	5,548	744	69,815 10 7
Southern Range.	Tanjore	355	49	4,254 9 1
	Trichinopoly	1,550	175	16,809 9 0
	Madura	926	96	8,789 6 5
	Tinnevelly	409	75	7,173 9 6
	Salem	1,381	158	16,809 7 2
	Coimbatore	1,807	191	18,929 0 2
	Malabar	1,365	185	17,357 14 1
	South Canara	152	23	1,805 10 0
	Total ...	7,945	952	91,766 1 5
	Grand Total ...	16,676	2,067	1,94,253 4 9

Particulars as to inquests.

In all cases of death from unknown, violent, and suspicious causes, an inquest is held by the village headman, and is attended by the Police who are bound to render every assistance to the magisterial authorities.

Particulars as to orderly duty.

Orderlies on a sanctioned scale are furnished by the department to all Magistrates. They are employed solely for official purposes. They are relieved weekly.

All processes of a criminal nature are served by the Police. 400 men were in 1878 added to the force to enable this duty to be better performed than before. The pay of these men is more than covered by the fees charged for the process. The following is a statement of processes served on average for the three years 1876 to 1878 :— Particulars as to process-serving.

Ranges.	Districts.	Processes.	Ranges.	Districts.	Processes.
	Madras City	19,926	Southern Range.	Tanjore	39,645
Northern Range.	Ganjam	23,501		Trichinopoly	16,926
	Vizagapatam	21,683		Madura	31,286
	Jeypore	925		Tinnevelly	21,137
	Godavari	24,294		Salem	19,720
	Kistna	16,591		Coimbatore	20,883
	Total ...	86,994		Nilgiri	1,478
				Malabar	26,362
				South Canara	12,718
Central Range.	Nellore	14,941			
	Kurnool	14,419			
	Bellary	26,767			
	Cuddapah	16,356			
	North Arcot	30,486			
	Chingleput	11,530			
	South Arcot	26,032		Total ...	190,105
	Total ...	140,531		Grand Total ...	437,556

The Police Department compile all the statistics required by Government under the head of Crime and Offences, and portion of the statistics required under the head of Criminal Justice. For these matters see the two Sections of this volume given hereafter bearing those two titles. Collection of statistics.

CRIME AND OFFENCES.

A section on Police in the Government Administration Reports deals with the results under detection of criminals and offenders, and a section on criminal justice deals with the results under their punishment. A separate section has also been opened in the Administration Reports for results under the occurrence of crime and offences. For statistics under the latter head the Government rely entirely on the Police Department. Crimes are first reported to a Police station-house either by the village magistrate, or by beat constable, or by the complainant. Sometimes occurrences are first heard of through general rumour. Occurrences are first entered in the station-house register. The station-house officer then sends an occurrence report to Police district head-quarters. The same occurrences are also entered in the station-house report of the day, which is sent to the Division Inspector, who after checking it sends it to the head-quarter office. Crime reports are checked daily Mode of collecting statistics.

in the district office and arranged according to divisions and according to classes of offences. Subsequent information received in Inspectors' diaries, in charge sheets, referred charge sheets, &c., is also filed with the above. Each Division Inspector keeps a crime register and enters in it all crimes communicated to him through the daily station-house reports, subsequent proceedings being entered as they occur. On the 1st of each month the Inspector prepares an extract from his crime register showing all offences reported during the previous month. About the same time he receives a monthly "B" file from the Magistrate of his division or taluk, in which is entered all cases charged before the Magistrate by the Police, and also all cases directly taken up by the Magistrate and the results in these cases. The Inspector checks the "B" file with his register, and if there is any difference he adjusts it with the Magistrate. He then gives a register number to all Police cases entered in the "B" file, for facility of reference in the ledgering department of the district office, and despatches the "B" file together with his crime extract to district head-quarters on or before the 12th of each month. The crime extracts received from Inspectors are compared in the head-quarters office with the crime reports already arranged and filed, and also with "B" forms. Objections and differences, if any, are noted on both extracts and reports, and the crimes are then ledgered. Subsequent proceedings and results are entered in the ledger from the "B" file. Crime reports, crime extracts, and "B" files, in which further information or explanation of differences is required, are returned to the several officers concerned, and on receipt of reply adjustments are made in the ledger. To ensure the correctness of the ledger in the head-quarter office a return of all grave crimes is prepared and published in the District Police Gazette quarterly or half-yearly, and Inspectors have to report whether this return corresponds with their registers. Results in cases of appeal to High Court are reported to the District Superintendent of Police by the District Magistrate and duly entered in the crime ledger. Finally the annual statements compiled in district Police offices are subjected to scrutiny in the statistical department of the chief office at Madras, and every discrepancy or apparent inaccuracy is referred back to the district for explanation. From the central office the returns are made to Government. In the town of Madras the Commissioner of Police or his deputy sits at the High Court during the sessions and takes a note of all convictions and sentences passed.

Crime for 3 years.

The following abstract table shows the crime which occurred in the three years 1876 to 1878 under the Penal Code and Special and Local Laws. The year 1877 was however exceptional as to total amount, being the year of the famine :—

Ranges.	Districts.	Cases.		Persons.		Property.	
		Reported.	Detected.	Arrested.	Convicted.	Lost.	Recovered.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Madras City	39,825	25,146	49,314	30,099	64,918	30,991
Northern Range.	Ganjam	7,719	3,461	15,348	6,838	53,829	18,168
	Vizagapatam	7,820	3,950	17,373	8,746	68,951	21,826
	Jeypore	824	470	1,234	787	12,619	4,016
	Godavari	6,309	3,257	17,367	5,776	97,633	23,267
	Kistna	7,954	3,740	14,665	6,703	72,374	15,672
	Total ...	30,626	14,878	65,987	28,850	305,406	82,949
Central Range.	Nellore	9,484	4,313	15,908	8,501	91,780	16,872
	Kurnool	5,435	3,004	9,925	5,734	129,639	27,008
	Bellary	13,825	9,893	22,552	15,331	211,270	45,030
	Cuddapah	6,526	3,220	13,040	6,132	142,336	24,776
	North Arcot	12,162	6,300	19,897	9,821	150,619	29,276
	Chingleput	8,102	5,321	13,933	8,605	52,810	12,707
	South Arcot	10,071	5,221	19,225	8,080	96,362	18,709
	Total ...	65,605	37,272	114,480	62,204	874,816	174,378
Southern Range.	Tanjore	12,804	7,148	24,127	9,205	93,014	10,747
	Trichinopoly	7,523	4,338	15,293	7,371	44,812	10,868
	Madura	15,838	9,686	25,911	13,848	161,931	34,665
	Tinnevelly	7,461	4,735	14,976	7,818	105,594	15,840
	Salem	9,355	5,824	18,114	10,709	90,133	27,323
	Coimbatore	10,099	4,954	17,908	8,174	89,547	21,043
	Nilgiri	1,524	895	1,970	1,214	9,622	3,305
	Malabar	12,720	5,494	24,177	8,620	149,367	29,011
	South Canara	3,081	1,658	7,180	2,542	38,221	9,955
	Total ...	80,405	44,732	149,656	69,501	782,241	162,757
	Grand Total ...	216,461	122,028	379,437	190,654	2,027,381	451,075

CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Old Sudder Courts.

In former years there was a Supreme Court, presided over by Barrister Judges consisting of a Chief Justice and one or more Puisne Judges appointed by the Crown, which exercised jurisdiction within the limits of the city of Madras. For the supervision of criminal justice administered in the Mofussil by the Company's Judges and Magistrates, there was again a Superior Court called the Foujdary Adalut which sat at the Presidency town. This latter Court was presided over by a chief and four other Judges, being covenanted civilians of experience taken from the judicial branch of the service. The Chief Judge was practically Honorary President of the Foujdary Adalut, being one of the two Civilian Members of Council. Appeals from the Courts in the Mofussil lay to the Foujdary Adalut. On the direct assumption of the government of the country by the Queen these two Courts were abolished as such, and were, by 24 and 25 Vic., Cap. 104, merged in one High Court of Judicature, with original and appellate jurisdiction, and presided over by a Barrister Chief Justice, and four Puisne Judges, one of whom is a Barrister and all of whom hold their appointments direct from the Queen.

High Court, Criminal Side.

The High Court exercises ordinary original criminal jurisdiction within the limits of the city of Madras, and tries all cases committed to it by the City Magistrates. Its procedure, in the exercise of its original criminal jurisdiction, is now governed by Act X of 1875, entitled the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act. By this Act it is empowered to hold sittings on such days and at such convenient intervals as the Chief Justice from time to time may appoint. These sittings are presided over by a single Judge and are known as Sessions, usually held once a quarter. All prisoners committed to take their trial before the High Court are arraigned at these Sessions, and the trial is held before a jury consisting, under the new procedure, of nine persons, three of whom are usually Europeans. The relations between the Judge and the jury are the same as in English law. Juries are of two kinds, common and special. All ordinary cases are tried before a common jury; but capital cases and special cases, usually those in which the Crown is directly interested, and for which it prosecutes through the Advocate-General, are tried before a special jury. Under Section 50 of the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act the High Court has power to sit at any place outside the Presidency town, and in any such case juries have to be empannelled under special arrangements. There is no appeal from a criminal trial before the High Court. By its Letters Patent (Clause 24) the High Court may exercise extraordinary original criminal jurisdiction over all persons within the jurisdiction of any Court subject to its superintendence, and may at its discretion, try any such persons brought before it on charges preferred by the Advocate-General, or by any Magistrate, or by any other officer specially empowered by Government in that behalf. European British subjects are committed by Justices of the Peace to take their trial before the High Court. The High Court has now no power to issue a writ of *habeas corpus*, but it has somewhat analogous powers under Section 148 of the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act; under this provision the High Court may direct a prisoner to be brought before it to be bailed or examined as a witness, or for other purposes. By its Letters Patent the High Court is also invested with Admiralty and Vice-Admiralty jurisdiction. As a Court of Appeal and Revision, the powers of the High Court are prescribed by the Criminal Procedure Code, Act X of 1872, as amended by Act XI of 1874. Appeals from the Session Courts in the districts lie to the High Court and are heard and determined by two Judges; but in case they differ in opinion, the difference of opinion must be settled by adding one or more Judges to the bench to hear and determine the appeal. All sentences of death must be confirmed by the High Court. There is no appeal on the part of the prosecution from a judgment of acquittal; but the Local Government are empowered by Section 272 of the Code of Criminal Procedure to direct an appeal to the High Court from such a judgment.

There is also no appeal from convictions in summary trials of certain offences held by 1st-class Magistrates or benches of Magistrates with first-class powers, where the sentence does not exceed three months' imprisonment, or fine of 200 rupees, or whipping only, nor from sentences passed by such Magistrates or by Session Judges in which the imprisonment awarded does not exceed one month, or the fine inflicted does not exceed 50 rupees, or where the sentence is for whipping only. Under Chapter XXII of the Code of Criminal Procedure, the High Court exercises powers of superintendence and revision over all the Criminal Courts of the Presidency, in the matter of framing rules for their guidance, of revising their calendars and sentences, of calling for their records, and of annulling, suspending, or modifying their sentences.

District Sessions Courts.

In each of the districts of the Presidency, except in Malabar where there are two Courts, there is a single Sessions Court presided over by the District Judge who, in the exercise of his criminal jurisdiction, is styled the Sessions Judge. Sessions Judges are appointed and removed by the Governor in Council by virtue of the powers vested in him by Section 9 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. In the Nilgiris the Commissioner is the Sessions Judge. The Sessions Court cannot take cognizance of any offence as a court of original jurisdiction unless the accused person has been committed to it by a competent Magistrate, except when the offence has been committed before itself or under its own cognizance, and is an offence of a specified class exclusively triable by a Sessions Court. Trials before a Court of Session are usually held with the aid of two or three Assessors, whose verdict however the Judge is empowered to set aside. Trials by jury also may be held before a Sessions Court, but only in those districts to which the jury system has been extended by the Government. As yet the jury system has not been extended beyond the five districts of North Arcot, Cuddapah, Godavari, Tanjore, and Vizagapatam, and in the latter case only to part of the district, as it is difficult to procure the services of a sufficient number of qualified persons in the other districts. The crimes tried by juries are theft, robbery, and gang robbery, house-breaking, and receiving or concealing stolen property; and it is to this careful selection of offences that the measure of success hitherto attained is chiefly attributable. The Sessions Court has power to pass the maximum punishment prescribed for each offence by the Penal Code, and, except in the case of death, its sentences are effectual without further reference, subject only to appeal to the High Court. All capital sentences must be confirmed by the High Court. The Sessions Court is also an Appellate Court, as to it lie all appeals from the decisions of the District Magistrates or other Magistrates of the first class.

Magisterial Courts.

Below the Courts of Session there are three grades of Criminal Courts, presided over by Magistrates of the first, second, or third class. At

the head of each district is the District Magistrate, who is also the Collector of the district. This officer is a Magistrate of the first class, his magisterial jurisdiction extends throughout the district, all the other Magistrates in the district are subject to his control, and he has the power of allotting the criminal work of the district among the different Magistrates subordinate to him and of defining their local jurisdiction. A district is divided into divisions, consisting each of so many taluks. At the head of each division is usually one of the Covenanted Assistants of the Collector and District Magistrate, who is invested with first-class powers, is styled the Division Magistrate, and has control over the subordinate Magistrates within his division. The Sub-Collector of the district, however, although a Divisional Magistrate, is styled the Joint Magistrate. The Deputy Collector on general duty, an Uncovenanted officer, is also a 1st-class Magistrate, and is usually in charge of a division. Each taluk is under the magisterial control of the Tahsildar, who, for that purpose, is usually vested with the powers of a 2nd-class Magistrate. He is assisted by his Sheristadar who has third-class powers. In larger taluks the Deputy Tahsildar is likewise vested with the powers of a Magistrate of the third class; and in large towns there is a special Town Magistrate with second or third class powers as the case may call for. All these Magistrates have various powers of ordering search, commitment, taking of bail, &c.; but their punitive powers are limited as follows. A Magistrate of the first class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding two years, fine to the extent of 1,000 rupees, and whipping. A Magistrate of the second class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding six months, fine not exceeding 200 rupees, and whipping. A Magistrate of the third class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding one month and fine not exceeding 50 rupees. In addition to his other powers, a 1st-class Magistrate may hear appeals from the decisions of Magistrates of the second and third classes when so empowered by the Government. All European Magistrates of the first class are invested with the powers of a Justice of the Peace to enable them to deal with European British subjects. Except in the Presidency town, no Justice of the Peace can, under Section 72 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, inquire into a complaint or try a charge against a European British subject unless he is himself a European British subject. Justices of the Peace are appointed by the Governor in Council under Act II of 1869; and by Section 5 of this Act they have power to commit for trial European British subjects to the High Court or Court prescribed in that behalf by the law in force, and to do all other acts appertaining to the office of a Justice of the Peace. In the Presidency town the Magistrates now sit and exercise jurisdiction under a special Act called the Presidency Magistrates' Act IV of 1877. Their powers are co-extensive with

those of a 1st-class or District Magistrate under the Code of Criminal Procedure. They are all Justices of the Peace, and one of them is styled the Chief Magistrate with power to regulate the conduct and distribution of business, to appoint the time of sittings, and otherwise to control the business of the Magistrates. They are not now called Magistrates of Police but Presidency Magistrates. The Commissioner of Police who, with two Deputies, administers the Police of the town of Madras subject to the authority of the Inspector-General of Police, is invested with the powers of a Magistrate and Justice of the Peace under the provisions of Madras Act VIII of 1867. He does not, however, ordinarily exercise magisterial powers. He may do so on emergency, but ordinarily his powers are limited to preserving the peace, preventing crimes, detecting, apprehending, and detaining prisoners with a view to their being brought before a Magistrate. Military Cantonments are administered by Cantonment Magistrates. These are, as a rule, Officers of the Army, and are invested with the powers (first class) of a Magistrate of a Division of a District within the meaning and for the purposes of the Code of Criminal Procedure. They are appointed by Government under Madras Act I of 1866. The Government have recently appointed certain persons in different towns to be Honorary Magistrates; these sit as Benches with the Stipendiary Magistrate as their President for the trial of certain offences. All Magistrates are appointed by the Governor in Council under Section 9 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The lowest class of officers vested with criminal powers are the heads of villages, sometimes called Village Munsifs, who, under Regulation XI of 1816, are empowered to take cognizance of petty offences of assault and abusive language, and to punish the offenders by imprisonment in the village choultry for twelve hours; or if the offenders are of the lower castes, by putting them in the stocks for not more than six hours.

PRISONS.

Organization of the department.

The general superintendence of the jails throughout the Presidency rests with the Inspector-General of Jails, appointed under Act V of 1869. The Inspector-General of Jails is ex-officio visitor of all Lunatic Asylums in his jurisdiction. He also inspects and reports upon criminal lunatics confined in any jail under him by order of the Government under Section 431 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, such report being necessarily made once in every six months. The charge of central jails is assigned to superintendents specially selected and appointed by Government. The superintendent has immediately under him a disciplined staff of jailors and warders; there are also office clerks and store-keepers, and a small staff of artizans to

instruct the prisoners in their various trades. There is also a medical officer with one or two hospital assistants. The executive management of the jail in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labor, expenditure, punishment and control generally rests with the superintendent, subject to the authority of the Inspector-General of Jails. The superintendence of district jails is vested in the Civil Surgeon of the district, and the nomination to these appointments rests with the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department. The general control and superintendence of subsidiary jails is vested in the Magistrate of the district, but the executive charge in this case is vested in the Sub-Magistrate or other chief magisterial officer to whose office the subsidiary jail is attached.

Inspections.

The Inspector-General inspects prisons in which Europeans and Americans are confined once in six months; and all other jails, with the exception of subsidiary jails, once in every year. In the course of his tours he takes the opportunity to inspect as many of the subsidiary jails as possible. In addition to the detailed and periodic inspections by the Inspector-General, the Sanitary Commissioner inspects the central and district jails from time to time with the special object of ascertaining and reporting on their sanitary condition. The Sanitary Commissioner's services are also employed in cases of outbreak of epidemic disease or unusual sickness. In like manner the Deputy Surgeon-Generals visit and report on the jails of their circles. In addition to the precautions just mentioned official visitors are appointed by Government to all the central and district jails, and these officers are bound to visit the jails in their charge at least once in every month. The official visitors are the Session Judges, Magistrates, Joint Magistrates and Head Assistant Magistrates of the several districts in which the jails are situated. It is the duty of all official visitors other than the Session Judges to inspect the subsidiary jails situated in their charges. The results of the inspection made by the official visitors are recorded and transmitted to the Inspector-General of Jails, who passes such orders as he may think necessary.

Jail accommodation.

The prison accommodation in this Presidency is as follows:—7 Central Jails, including the Penitentiary at Madras; 29 District Jails, including the European Prison at Ootacamund; 308 Subsidiary Jails; and 1 Jail for civil debtors at Madras. Central Jails are divided into two classes; the first class to contain 1,000 convicts and upwards, and the second class to contain less than 1,000 convicts. There are four first-class and three second-class Central Jails. The first-class Central Jails are Rajahmundry, Vellore, Trichinopoly, and Coimbatore. The second-class Central Jails are Salem, Cannanore, and the Penitentiary. Two abstract statements are appended showing the number of persons the different jails in this Presidency are constructed to contain. In the case of subsidiary jails the information is given by districts:—

STATEMENT I.—*Accommodation in each Central and District Jail.*

Jails.	Capacity of the Jail Barracks at 40 Superficial Feet per Head.			Daily Average Number of Prisoners of all Classes.			Total Population (all Classes of Prisoners included).			Maximum Population on any one day.		
	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
Russelkonda	130	3	133	163·51	1·96	165·47	501	13	514	208	4	212
Berhampore	160	32	192	318·21	19·44	337·65	1,545	136	1,681	452	41	473
Vizagapatam	291	18	309	474·94	62·50	537·44	2,690	587	3,277	633	110	743
Rajahmundry Central ...	992	48	1,040	1,127·74	64·86	1,192·60	1,438	131	1,569	1,191	90	1,281
Do. District ...	88	18	106	264·30	9·85	274·15	1,291	122	1,413	377	17	394
Masulipatam	106	4	110	134·51	4·44	138·95	759	39	798	252	5	257
Guntoor	105	15	120	269·72	16·69	286·41	1,204	91	1,295	357	26	383
Nellore	248	6	254	993·49	37·62	1,031·11	2,717	215	2,932	1,246	55	1,301
Kurnool	123	3	126	684·42	36·79	721·21	2,455	192	2,647	894	66	960
Bellary	411	40	451	1,771·49	66·03	1,837·52	5,508	342	5,850	2,061	108	2,169
Cuddapah	222	8	230	498·66	19·38	518·04	1,841	96	1,937	669	23	692
Chittoor	254	22	276	492·75	39·03	531·78	2,968	251	3,219	958	86	1,044
Vellore Central	1,087	90	1,177	1,065·60	51·49	1,117·09	1,346	93	1,439	1,111	52	1,163
Do. Camp	...	...	...	658·66	...	658·66	1,566	...	1,566	727	...	727
Salem Central	597	34	631	1,630·92	57·49	1,688·41	4,993	346	5,339	2,082	93	2,175
Guindy	88	...	88	72·61	...	72·61	267	...	267	129	...	129
Chingleput	130	29	159	327·33	20·16	347·49	1,472	122	1,594	368	26	394
Cuddalore	345	13	358	1,086·46	22·31	1,108·77	3,262	138	3,400	1,331	23	1,354
Tranquebar	116	8	124	140·39	12·89	153·28	710	76	786	174	22	196
Tanjore	169	28	197	225·05	19·04	244·09	1,248	96	1,344	296	20	316
Trichinopoly Central ...	1,066	99	1,165	1,077·87	71·43	1,149·30	1,606	310	1,916	1,100	106	1,206
Do. District ...	205	10	215	265·20	·15	265·35	1,301	5	1,306	341	1	342
Do. Camp ...	...	...	...	677·83	...	677·83	1,683	...	1,683	904	...	904
Madura	474	35	509	1,120·56	44·84	1,165·40	4,250	245	4,495	1,961	88	2,049
Tinnevelly	77	19	96	461·04	24·82	485·86	2,003	129	2,132	572	34	606
Cochin	29	8	37	3·93	...	3·93	43	...	43	11	...	11
Calicut	221	9	230	258·66	8·95	267·61	1,461	46	1,507	304	10	314
Tellicherry	161	5	166	118·76	5·50	124·26	683	20	703	158	8	166
Cannanore Central	830	30	860	839·85	...	839·85	1,072	...	1,072	879	...	879
Mangalore	223	15	238	195·86	17·07	212·93	724	69	793	236	19	255
Palghat Fort	500	...	500	340·94	...	340·94	912	...	912	428	...	428
Coimbatore Central	1,094	52	1,146	1,306·27	31·76	1,398·03	1,779	50	1,829	1,436	32	1,468
Do. District ...	180	...	180	436·44	26·63	463·07	2,358	119	2,457	649	36	685
Ootacamund do.	201	12	213	142·09	7·86	149·95	406	81	487	174	32	206
European Prison	35	...	35	24·57	...	24·57	61	...	61	32	...	32
Penitentiary	676	57	733	735·02	101·23	836·25	3,836	1,150	4,986	839	123	962
Debtors' Prison, Madras ...	40	6	46	20·39	1·52	21·91	488	40	528	36	2	38
Total ...	12,274	776	12,450	20,486·04	903·73	21,389·77	64,422	5,350	69,772	...	...	...

STATEMENT II.—*Subsidiary Jail Accommodation in each District.*

Districts.	Number the Jails will hold.			Average Daily Number of Prisoners in all the Jails put together.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Ganjam	168	110	278	120·75	29·00	149·75
Vizagapatam	194	147	341	177·31	40·60	217·91
Godavari	118	73	191	69·62	11·72	81·34
Kistna	159	82	241	98·77	24·13	122·90
Nellore	138	70	208	116·93	16·64	133·57
Kurnool	133	76	209	140·27	25·21	165·48
Bellary	117	51	168	71·32	12·16	83·48
Cuddapah	137	46	183	90·34	8·12	98·46
North Arcot	263	104	367	183·70	21·15	204·85
Salem	239	116	355	180·36	25·96	206·32
Chingleput	305	146	451	93·15	12·98	106·13
South Arcot	273	106	379	134·56	21·08	155·64
Tanjore	243	142	385	117·08	15·99	133·07
Trichinopoly	220	83	303	71·15	6·34	77·49
Madura	226	67	293	179·63	32·09	211·72
Tinnevelly	168	54	222	102·79	12·87	115·66
Malabar	270	125	395	121·88	5·50	127·38
South Canara	126	50	176	33·14	7·80	40·94
Coimbatore	188	89	277	157·58	17·60	175·18
Nilgiri Hills	12	12	24	3·59	·51	4·10
Total ...	3,697	1,749	5,446	2,263·92	347·45	2,611·37

Arrangements for reception of prisoners.

The central jails, with the exception of that at Salem and the Penitentiary at Madras, are intended for the reception of prisoners sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for periods in excess of twelve months. The jail at Salem and the Penitentiary receive short-sentenced prisoners in addition to those of the description just specified. All prisoners sentenced to imprisonment for periods exceeding thirty days are committed to district jails, and such of them as are long-sentenced prisoners are transferred to the central jail of the circle at the expiration of their time of appeal. At the stations where the central jails are situated, prisoners sentenced for periods extending beyond one year are committed direct to these jails. Transfers are made periodically by the central office in the following manner. Superintendents of district jails enter in their monthly return of convicts a memorandum showing the number of long-sentenced convicts in their jails, and also the number whose time for appeal has expired; these memoranda are compared with the returns from the central jails, and the transfers are then ordered accordingly. Every convict is sent to the central jail of his own district, unless it is found necessary to send him elsewhere owing to want of accommodation or for some other reason. The central jail at Cannanore is utilized also for the reception of Madras convicts sentenced to transportation but who are not to be deported. Subsidiary jails are places of confinement for persons committed to custody pending preliminary investigation before the Magistracy, and for criminal prisoners sentenced to less than one month's imprisonment.

Penal labor.

Penal labor is carried out in the most complete way in central jails. Convicts on first admission into central jails are put to the hardest description of labor for which they are fit, are gradually promoted to work of a less severe character, and finally are sent to the manufactories. The intramural labor of central jails other than that of the manufactories consists in sawing timber, in making ordinary repairs to the prison buildings, in drawing water, and in conducting ordinary menial duties. The extramural labor consists in quarrying and carting stone and lime, in digging gravel, in excavating tanks and wells, in ploughing and tilling jail lands, in gardening and husbandry, and in hauling dry earth for conservancy purposes. Most labor however in central jails is intramural. The employment of prisoners in district jails is of a somewhat different character from that of prisoners in central jails, inasmuch as it is not so strictly intramural. Industrial labor must always be carried on at a disadvantage when a prisoner is sentenced to a short term, and the difficult problem in these cases arises, of providing suitable employment which shall at once fulfil the necessary conditions of really punitive labor and at the same time be remunerative. District jail labor is however approximated to central jail labor

as much as possible. In subsidiary jails it is the duty of the officer in executive charge to give effect to sentences of rigorous imprisonment by providing penal employment as best he can within the precincts of the jail enclosure. With the exception of stone breaking and road making little can be done in subsidiary jails. Gangs of prisoners are occasionally hired by Municipalities. Grants of convict labor are also sometimes made by order of Government to those bodies without payment on sufficient reason being shown. In these cases the gangs are employed in such work as making and repairing roads, in clearing drains, in filling up ditches on works of reclamation of land, in digging tanks, removing prickly-pear, &c.

Jail manufactures have been considerably extended during the last few years, and much attention continues to be bestowed on this branch of jail administration; not only with a view to recouping, as far as possible, the cost of the prisoners' custody and maintenance in prison, but also to afford the prisoner himself the means of livelihood on leaving the jail. On the other hand the employment of prisoners on useful trades and manufactures is not allowed to interfere with the enforcement of discipline and the exaction of a proper amount of penal labor. Endeavors are specially made to utilize prison labor for the production of articles required by the public service. A large quantity of cotton cloth, woollen blankets, boots and sandals is supplied annually for the Police. Other public departments are supplied with carpets, tent materials, horse blankets and carpenter's work. Printing and book-binding is executed in the Penitentiary at Madras under the supervision of the Superintendent of the Government Press. European convicts and military prisoners confined in the Presidency jail and in the European prison at Ootacamund are employed in coir mat making and coir picking, in carpenter and smith's work, in boot and shoe-making, and in weaving cotton-goods. Jail manufactures.

The rules under which remission is granted may be explained briefly as follows. The sentence is represented by marks, at the rate of six marks a day, and generally speaking every convict sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for eighteen months and upwards is credited with an additional mark or half mark per diem for extra industry. Before being permitted however to earn any extra marks the convict must undergo a period of probation equal to one-sixth of the sentence, and while under this probation he is put to the harder description of prison labor. In no case can the period of probation be less than one-sixth of the sentence; but it may be longer, as a convict who misconducts himself is liable to be fined a certain number of marks, which will retard his advancement by an equivalent number of days. When a convict has passed through his term of probation, Remission system, &c.

he is admitted into the third class and may then commence to earn extra marks as above mentioned towards a partial remission of his sentence. Should he be particularly industrious and should he not be reported for any breach of jail rules, he is allowed to earn one extra mark per diem; for lesser industry he is allowed one half mark per diem. A convict must remain in the third class at least six months, after which if he has earned the prescribed number of marks he is promoted to the second class. He must remain at least four months in the second class, after which period if he has not forfeited any marks by misconduct or idleness he is promoted to the first class. When a convict has earned in the first class the prescribed number of marks, which cannot be done without earning full marks every day for one year, he becomes eligible for appointment to the lowest grade of convict servant. Besides the ordinary remission he may earn in the class last named he is allowed to reckon additional remission at the rate of one month a year. After a year's service in this grade he is eligible for the post of convict warder, in which grade he may earn additional remission at a rate not exceeding two months a year. The remaining grade of convict servant is that of work overseer, whose privileges are the same as those of the convict warder. Promotion to each of these classes is followed by certain privileges consisting in more frequent communication by visit or letter with friends, and in the earning of a higher gratuity of money to be paid on a prisoner's discharge. Each class wears its own distinctive badge. The privileges are necessarily very limited in amount, but still they offer inducements which are sought after. No remission is granted for conduct alone. It is only on the presumption of good conduct that convicts are allowed to acquire advantages by their industry. If their conduct is indifferent or bad, they are liable to be fined a certain number of marks according to the nature and degree of the offence, and can thus forfeit by misconduct the remission they may have gained by their industry. The discipline observed in jails towards re-convicted and habitual offenders does not differ from that observed towards other prisoners. Re-convicted prisoners are not debarred from earning remission, and in this respect the previous career and character of a prisoner makes no difference in the treatment he is subject to. It rests with the Criminal Courts of justice in awarding the sentence to take into consideration whether the prisoner has been previously a criminal, and it is not left to the discretion of the prison authorities to enhance the severity of the punishment.

Punishment for misconduct.

Acts of misconduct are followed by forfeiture of remission, degradation to a lower class with loss of privileges, separate confinement, reduction in diet, corporal punishment and other punishments. The power of punishing a prisoner for breaches of prison rules resides only

in the Superintendent. The limits of punishment are laid down in the Madras Jails Act and in the Jail Code. Criminal offences committed in jail are punished by the Courts of Justice, with the exception that no person who has been once punished under the provisions of the Madras Jails Act can be again punished for the same offence in any other way, or by any other authority. The Superintendent of the jail is legally bound to record the particulars of all offences and punishments in a prescribed form.

Diet scales.

The diet of prisoners is fixed at the minimum necessary to enable a man to execute the work required of him; if he should be idle and not execute his work, the amount of food is reduced. Care is taken to provide a daily issue of wholesome vegetables and condiments. Although the diet is wholesome in character and sufficient in quantity, it is recognised as being coarse food, and nothing partaking of the nature of indulgence enters into its composition.

Jail gardens.

To nearly every jail is attached a garden in which the vegetables required for consumption by the prisoners are grown. The jail gardens provide suitable occupation for the elderly, infirm and convalescent convicts.

Education.

The education of prisoners in jails is regulated by the prison rules, It is of an elementary character, and care is taken that it shall not lead to relaxation of sentences, or to interference with the regular duties and work of the jail.

Juveniles.

Young criminals sentenced to more than three months' imprisonment are generally transferred to the nearest central jail. In all central jails, except Salem, there is separate accommodation for juveniles. Those sentenced to shorter terms of imprisonment are confined in the district jails. In some of these the accommodation for juveniles is still unsatisfactory, but in all the new district jails a separate block has been provided. Under the existing law, Section 318, Act X of 1872, a youthful offender sentenced to imprisonment may be confined in a reformatory for such period as his sentence continues. It is under contemplation to establish in the vicinity of Madras a Reformatory school for juveniles under the provisions of Act V of 1876. The impediments in the way of establishing the Reformatory are purely financial.

Health of prisoners.

The following table shows the death-rate amongst all classes of prisoners in the jails of the Madras Presidency for the last twenty years. When it is considered that the bulk of the criminal population is composed of men with constitutions impaired by excess, the statistics of mortality show favorable results. The death-rates during 1877 and 1878 were exceptional on account of the famine.

Years.	Average Daily Number of Prisoners of all classes.	Number of Deaths amongst all Classes of Prisoners.	Death-rate per thousand of all classes of Prisoners.	Mean of each triennial period.
1859-60	6,098	506	82·9	81·1
1860-61	5,338	360	67·4	
1861-62	6,687	622	93·0	
1862-63	7,557	676	89·4	108·7
1863-64	7,492	824	109·9	
1864-65	7,855	998	127·0	
1865*	8,150	1,055	129·4	95·8
1866-67	9,808·86	1,134	115·6	
1867-68	9,668·43	410	42·4	
1868-69	10,152·64	357	35·1	33·8
1869-70	9,933·39	388	39·0	
1870	9,621·47	264	27·4	
1871	9,364·47	173	18·4	22·9
1872	9,376·84	208	22·1	
1873	9,314·81	264	28·3	
1874	9,923·23	266	26·8	36·0
1875	9,890·69	386	39·0	
1876	10,926·25	464	42·4	
1877	20,678·90	3,593	173·7	...
1878	21,389·77	2,688	125·6	...

CIVIL JUSTICE.

High Court, Civil Side.

The administration of Civil Justice is under the exclusive superintendence of the High Court, constituted by 24 & 25 Vic., Cap. 104, and by Letters Patent. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Puisne Judges; the Chief Justice and one of the Puisne Judges being Barristers appointed by the Queen from the Bar of the United Kingdom, and the other Judges being experienced members of the Civil Service (covenanted or uncovenanted) appointed by Her Majesty on the nomination of the Local Government. The High Court exercises ordinary original jurisdiction over all suits the cause of action in which has arisen within the limits of the city of Madras, and it exercises appellate jurisdiction over all Civil Courts established throughout the Presidency. Original cases in the High Court are decided by a single Judge, from whose decision there is an appeal which is ordinarily heard and determined by a division bench consisting of two Judges. In the same manner appeals from the Mofussil Courts are heard and determined by a division bench of two Judges; but in any case in which the two Judges differ in opinion, the appeal is re-heard and finally determined by a full bench consisting of three or more Judges. By its Letters Patent the High Court possesses powers of extraordinary original jurisdiction, in the exercise of which it can call up and determine any suit within the

* For the calendar year.

jurisdiction of any Court subject to its superintendence. By clause 18 of its Letters Patent (1866) it has power to hold sittings under a single Judge for the relief of insolvent debtors at Madras; such Judge exercising, within and without the city of Madras, such powers and authorities with respect to original and appellate jurisdiction and otherwise as are constituted by the laws relating to insolvent debtors in India. By its Letters Patent the High Court also possesses Admiralty, Testamentary, and Matrimonial jurisdiction.

Madras Small Cause Court.

All small suits of 1,000 rupees and below that value within the Presidency town are cognizable, and may be summarily determined by the Madras Court of Small Causes sitting under Act IX of 1850, and the amending Act XXXVI of 1864. The Court consists of a First Judge who must be a Barrister-at-Law, and three other Judges who are as a rule appointed from the ranks of the Uncovenanted Service. This Court may also try actions of more than 1,000 rupees in value, under Section 3 of the amending Act, if the parties consent to the jurisdiction of the Court. It is not intended that the Small Cause Court should try questions involving *title*, or affecting immoveable property, but it may deal with title incidentally arising in the disposal of suits within the pecuniary jurisdiction of the Court, such as suits for house and ground rent, trespass, &c. It may also deal with title in cases of ejectment tried under Section 91 of Act IX of 1850 But the decision of the Small Cause Court in no way debars the parties from carrying their dispute into the High Court, so far as it affects title to landed property, there to be enquired into and determined in the regular way. The Small Cause Court also possesses insolvency jurisdiction under Chapter XX of the Civil Procedure Code.

District Courts.

In each of the districts into which the Presidency is divided there is a chief Court styled the District Court, which is presided over by a District Judge appointed from the Covenanted Civil Service. In the Districts of Tanjore and Malabar there are two Courts of this class, styled respectively the District Courts of North Tanjore and North Malabar and the District Courts of South Tanjore and South Malabar; and in the Nilgiris the chief Court is that of the Commissioner, who sits as the District Judge under a special enactment. The District Court is both an Original Court and an Appellate Court, and by Section 27 of the Madras Civil Courts Act III of 1873 the District Judge is vested with general control over all the Civil Courts of whatever grade established in his district, subject however to rules prescribed for the purpose by the High Court. All appeals in suits decided by the inferior Courts in which the amount litigated is 5,000 rupees and less, lie to the District Court; but where the amount or value of the subject-matter of the suit exceeds 5,000 rupees, the

appeal lies to the High Court direct under Section 13 of the Act above mentioned.

Subordinate Judges' Courts.

The Court next in importance to that of the District Judge is the Court of the Subordinate Judge, formerly styled a Principal Sadr Amin, who is usually a native officer belonging to the Uncovenanted Service. The pecuniary jurisdiction of this officer is co-extensive with that of the District Judge, whose Assistant he really is in the disposal of original and appellate work. Subordinate Judges are appointed to districts in which the civil work is unusually heavy. There is one Subordinate Judge in Bellary, Godavari, South Arcot, Madura, North Tanjore, Tinnevelly, North Malabar and South Canara; two in each of the districts of South Tanjore and South Malabar; or twelve Subordinate Judges in all. Although the jurisdiction of a Subordinate Judge is as large as that of the District Judge, the latter is empowered by law to remove to his own Court any suit or appeal which he may for any reason see fit to dispose of himself; and in the same manner the District Judge is empowered to refer to the Subordinate Judge for disposal any suit or appeal filed in the District Court. By Section 28 of the Civil Courts Act the Government may invest any or all of these Subordinate Judges with the jurisdiction of a Judge of a Court of Small Causes for the summary trial of suits up to the amount of 500 rupees; as a fact most of the Subordinate Judges are invested with such powers.

Up-country and Military Small Cause Courts.

At the three stations of Cuddalore, Madura, and Combaconum there was down to 31st March 1879 a Court of Small Causes held under Act XI of 1865, with ordinary jurisdiction over small suits up to 500 rupees in value, but which jurisdiction the Government might extend to 1,000 rupees. These Judges were also invested with the powers of a Subordinate Judge for the trial of suits of any value by regular procedure, the decisions in which were accordingly open to appeal. The Judges at Cuddalore and Madura were members of the Covenanted Service, and the other Judge belonged to the Uncovenanted Service. These three posts were however abolished on 1st April 1879. In Military Cantonments the Cantonment Magistrate is generally invested by Government, under Madras Act I of 1866, with the powers of a Court of Small Causes with a pecuniary jurisdiction not exceeding 500 rupees.

District Munsifs' Courts.

As a Court proper, with all the function of a regular judicial tribunal, the Court of the District Munsif is the lowest in grade, but it is at the same time the most important to the country, as it is widely distributed, and is thus the chief Court of first instance open to the people. There is generally one such Court at the head-quarters of every taluk of a district, and the District Munsif's territorial jurisdiction

is as a rule conterminous with the taluk. The District Munsif is usually a native officer of experience who has risen in the subordinate ranks of the Judicial Department; but of late years he has been appointed in many instances from the ranks of the native bar, having previously undergone a "special test" examination as prescribed for the grade. The District Munsif's jurisdiction extends to suits the value of which does not exceed 2,500 rupees; and in most cases he is invested with a Small Cause jurisdiction over suits up to 50 rupees in value. There are at present 113 such officers located at different stations in the districts.

Village Munsifs' Courts and Punchayets.

A still lower Court is that of the Village Munsif, established by Regulation IV of 1816, to meet the simple requirements of a village community. The head of the village is under the Regulation *ex-officio* Village Munsif; local custom however sometimes has it otherwise. The Village Munsif's judicial powers extend to suits for personal property up to 10 rupees, his decisions not being open to appeal; if the parties consent, he may try and determine similar suits up to 100 rupees in value in the character of an arbitrator, and when the litigant villagers wish such a course, he has power under Regulation V of 1816 to summon a punchayet, generally of five persons, to decide suits for personal property without limitation as to value. Under Regulation XII of 1816 Collectors of districts may summon punchayets through the Village Munsifs, and may, with the consent of parties, refer to such punchayets the settlement of suits respecting the occupying, cultivating, and irrigating of land between proprietors or renters and their ryots; as well as claims to crops and lands and cases of disputed boundary.

Revenue Courts.

Collectors, Sub-Collectors, and Assistant and Deputy Collectors in charge of a Division sit as Revenue Courts and exercise judicial powers under the following Regulations:—(*a*), Regulation IX of 1822 and Act XXXVI of 1837, on charges against native servants of the Collector's public establishment, heads of villages, curnams and their gumastahs and other village officers and servants, for exacting or corruptly receiving money for the performance of official acts, levying unauthorized cesses or extra collections for their private use, embezzling public money or other public property, falsifying, destroying, or concealing public accounts or other documents relating to the receipt or expenditure of public money or other public property; (*b*), Regulation VI of 1831, regarding claims to hereditary village offices in the Revenue and Police departments, and to the emoluments attached to these offices; the ordinary Courts have no jurisdiction in regard to such claims; (*c*), Act VIII of 1865, Madras, regarding disputes between landlord and tenant in which no question of title is involved. The

Revenue Courts have power under the latter Act to enforce the terms of a tenancy to compel the exchange of puttas and muchilkas, to settle the rates of assessment or rent, to order sales under distraint, to award compensation for damages in such distraint, to arrest defaulters, and to eject tenants. These Courts, however, do not possess jurisdiction when any question of title to the land itself is raised in the course of such a suit.

Suits against Government and Government Officers in the Revenue Department.

When a suit is instituted against Government, or against Collectors or their subordinates for acts done in their official capacity, a report containing the facts of the case, for the accuracy of which the Collector is responsible, is submitted to the Board of Revenue with copy of the plaint and of the draft answer which it is proposed to file. When the Board consider the suit defensible they are empowered to sanction its defence at the public cost unless the value of the suit exceeds Rupees 1,000, or unless there is some important principle involved, in which cases the matter is submitted for the orders of Government. Difficult and doubtful cases are referred for the advice of the Government law officers. In simple suits between Government ryots for the transfer of putta in which the Collector is made a defendant *pro forma* in view to registration, the defence may be undertaken by him without reference to higher authority. When a suit is decided the result must be reported to the Board and copy of the decree and judgment submitted, and when the decision is adverse to Government the report must be submitted in time to admit of orders being passed as regards an appeal if such course is deemed advisable. No formal application is required for sanction to defend suits regarding claims to waste lands under Act XXIII of 1863, but a report of the institution of the suit is submitted for the information of Government. Suits against Government and Collectors are chiefly of the following description: (*a*), for the cancellation of sales for arrears of revenue under Madras Act II of 1864; (*b*), for transfer of puttas and registration of lands; (*c*), disputes regarding irrigation rights; (*d*), claims to waste land assigned by Government to parties under the rules for the disposal of assessed waste; (*e*), claims to house sites in the gramanattam or village site.

REGISTRATION OF ASSURANCES.

History of the department.

In the year 1834 the Court of Directors of the East India Company proposed the enactment of a law making registration of deeds relating to immoveable property compulsory under such penalties and safeguards as might be deemed requisite. Legislative proposals were accordingly made, and the subject was referred from time to time to

various Committees, until in 1864 a Bill containing the main substance of the present law on the subject was passed as Act XVI of 1864. This Act has since undergone several modifications (*vide* Acts IX of 1865, XX of 1866, XXVII of 1868, and VIII of 1871), and the law as at present administered is contained in Act III of 1877.

Provisions of the law.

The Act just mentioned provides the machinery necessary for registration, lays down the duties and powers of the different classes of officers, declares what are the registrable documents and the effects of registration and non-registration, and prescribes the mode, time and place of presentation and registration. The principle of the Act is the same as that of the law previously in force, No. VIII of 1871, but the new enactment has effected several detailed alterations. The main feature in the Registration law is the distinction of registrable documents into those which must be registered in order to obtain validity or what are called compulsory documents, and those which it is in the option of the parties to register or not as they think fit. Documents under the first head lose all validity if not registered. In the case of documents falling under the second head it is provided that a registered document of the same class shall take priority over a non-registered one. To remove a technical doubt the present Act also provides that all registered documents, whether compulsory or not, shall take priority over non-registered documents.

Establishment, &c.

For registration purposes the Presidency is divided into 21 districts and 271 sub-districts, the districts being conterminous with the limits of the Revenue Collectorates. The sub-districts are also, as a rule, co-extensive with the taluks and the divisions of Deputy Tahsildars and Sub-Magistrates. The Government were originally in favor of employing the existing Judicial Agency, wherever practicable, in performing the work of registration, but the idea after due consideration was abandoned. The department is now administered by 21 Registrars and 271 Sub-Registrars under the control and supervision of an officer styled the Inspector-General of Registration. A few of the Registrars are Deputy Collectors in charge of the District Treasuries, but the majority of them are officers specially appointed. Of the Sub-Registry offices 166 are at present presided over by Taluk Serishtadars and Sub-Magistrates, and 105 by persons specially appointed; but as registration increases and the offices become self-supporting, the Revenue Officers whose own proper duties are sufficiently onerous and who are unable to pay due attention to their registration work are being gradually relieved by the appointment of a duly qualified special agency. Originally all Registering Officers and their establishments were paid by a commission on the fees collected, but this mode of remuneration is being superseded by a system of fixed salaries and commission. The Official Registrars were divided into

three grades and remunerated by certain fixed allowances in addition to their salaries as Deputy Collectors; but the Special Registrars, who are Sub-Registrars as well at the head-quarters of the districts to which they are appointed, are paid by fixed salaries varying from 50 to 500 rupees, and by a commission of 20 per cent. on the amount of fees collected by them after the first 30 rupees. The Special Sub-Registrars who are distributed into six classes are also remunerated partly by a fixed salary and partly by commission; the former ranging from 30 to 100 rupees, and the latter being at the same rate as that allowed to the Special Registrars. The official Sub-Registrars receive a commission of 20 per cent. as personal remuneration on the fees they collect and 24 per cent. for their establishments. The Special Registering Officers are, as a rule, chosen from among the graduates and under-graduates of the Madras University, and they are required to acquire a practical knowledge of their duties in the central office before taking up their appointments.

REGISTRATION OF JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

Nature of Government control.

Joint-Stock Companies are registered under the Indian Companies' Act, 1860, or formed under some other Act or constituted by Royal Charter or Letters Patent. In the two latter cases the Companies are subject to the terms of the special enactment, charter, or letters patent, under which they are respectively constituted. Most Companies, however, are registered under the Indian Companies' Act of 1866, and under this enactment are controlled by a Registrar appointed by Government. The accounts of such Companies are audited and rendered yearly, and the documents relating to them, which are kept by the Registrar, are open to the public on payment of a fee. The Registrar sees that the Memorandum and Articles of Association are in accordance with the Act, and that the documents required to be furnished to him are duly sent in.

MILITARY.

General constitution of the Army.

The constitution of the Madras Army is as follows:—

2 Regiments of British Cavalry;
2 Batteries of Royal Horse Artillery;
11 Batteries Field Artillery;
6 Batteries Garrison Artillery, of which one is a Heavy Battery stationed at Secunderabad and one a Mountain Battery at Tonghoo;
Regiments British Infantry;
The Queen's Own Sappers and Miners, consisting of 10 companies;

4 Regiments Native Cavalry;
40 Regiments of Native Infantry.

Of the above force

5 Batteries of Artillery;
2 Regiments of European Infantry;
1 Company of Sappers and Miners; and
5 Regiments of Native Infantry serve in British Burma; and
1 Regiment of Native Cavalry and
5 Regiments of Native Infantry in the Bengal Presidency.

The Army is divided into 3 Divisions and 6 Brigades as under. The commands of 1 Division and 2 First-class Brigades are held by officers of the British service, and those of 2 Divisions, 2 First-class, and 2 Second-class Brigades by officers of the Indian service.

Divisions.

Hyderabad Subsidiary Force.
Mysore Division.
British Burma Division.

First-class Brigades.

Centre District.
Nagpore Force.
Ceded District.
Northern District.

Second-class Brigades.

Southern District.
Malabar and Canara.

Commissariat.

The executive of the Commissariat Department consists of 1 Commissary-General, 1 Deputy Commissary-General, 5 Assistant, 6 Deputy Assistant, and 11 Sub-Assistant Commissaries-General. The head-quarters and the principal office and stores are at Madras. The Amrut Mahal, or Government Cattle Breeding Establishment, at Hoonsoor in Mysore, is under the control of this department, and supplies draught bullocks for the army, the herds maintained averaging about 10,000 head of cattle.

Ordnance.

The head-quarters of the Ordnance Department is also at Madras and is under the administration of the Inspector-General of Ordnance and Magazines, 1 Deputy Inspector-General, and 5 Commissaries of Ordnance. The Gun Powder and Gun Carriage Factories, each under a Superintendent, are at Madras. A Bullet Factory is attached to the Gun Carriage Factory, and a Laboratory and Percussion Cap Factory are maintained at St. Thomas' Mount. The Camp Equipage Depôt is at Madras. There are Arsenals at Fort St. George, Rangoon, and Secunderabad, and Depôts at Bangalore, Nagpore, Bellary, St. Thomas' Mount, and Tonghoo.

Army Clothing.

The Army Clothing Department is located in Madras, and supplies the whole of the Madras Army, European and Native. The material is obtained from England and is made up under contract by native workmen. The sewing machine is now largely used.

Remount.

The Remount Depôt at Oosoor, about 30 miles from Bangalore, is under the superintendence of an Agent, assisted by a Veterinary

Surgeon and a small European staff. It contains accommodation for 1,000 horses. The average number of horses purchased annually is about 600, a large proportion of which are Australians, which are principally required for Artillery and British Cavalry. The Northern and Persian horse is generally allotted to the Native Cavalry. The average price paid to dealers per horse is about Rupees 530, and, on transfer to the ranks, their assumed value is Rupees 700.

Medical. The Medical Department consists of two branches, the British and Indian. The former has 1 Surgeon-General, 3 Deputy Surgeons-General, 39 Surgeons-Major, and 28 Surgeons. The duties of this branch are connected solely with the medical care of the European troops. The Indian Medical Department has 1 Surgeon-General, 6 Deputy Surgeons-General, 86 Surgeons-Major, and 94 Surgeons. A large proportion of the officers and subordinates of the Indian Medical Department are employed on civil duties, and the medical care of the Native troops is also provided for by this department. The Government are kept informed of the state of the health of the army by periodical returns furnished by the Surgeons-General of both departments, and by the reports of the Sanitary Commissioner. Further particulars on these heads will be found in Chapter VI.

Educational. The army schools, which are maintained for both European and Native troops, are under the management of a Commissioned Superintendent, 1 Assistant Superintendent, and Sub-Inspectors.

Pensions, &c. The head office for the payment of pensions and family payments is at Madras. The number of pensioners throughout the Presidency is about 30,000, and the number of families receiving remittances from the troops in Burmah and beyond the frontier is about 7,000. They are all paid monthly.

MARINE.

Marine department. The Marine Department of the Presidency is presided over by the Master Attendant of the Port of Madras. The local executive duties in connection with the conservancy of the port, as well as those of Shipping Master, are performed by the Deputy Master Attendant. The Head of the Marine Department is the adviser of Government on all marine matters, and is vested with the control and audit of the marine expenditure pertaining to his own department, or incurred on account of freight and passage in connection with the Military and Civil offices. It is his duty to exercise a general superintendence over vessels engaged for the conveyance of Government troops, passengers, stores, specie, or mails. He is also Registrar-General of Shipping for the Presidency, and Superintendent of Marine for the whole seaboard. The duties of out-port Masters Attendant and Conservators are similar to

those of the Deputy Master Attendant at Madras. They are required to enforce obedience to all port rules, and see that the provisions of the Conservancy, Passenger and Merchant Shipping Acts, Imperial and Indian, are properly observed. They enforce quarantine regulations, and by virtue of their office are Government Surveyors of Shipping. They sit also as nautical assessors in Courts of Inquiry held with reference to shipwrecks, and are Landing and Shipping Agents for Government consignments. Some of these officers are Magistrates of the first or second class and Justices of the Peace, their functions in this respect being as a rule confined to the trial or adjudication of offences against maritime law; though in some instances they have also to deal with criminal cases in which European British subjects are concerned. An alphabetical list of all the ports in this Presidency is given below. A list arranged by districts will be found in the Revenue Board's (volume) Standing Orders :—

No.	Names.	No.	Names.	No.	Names.
			British Indian Ports.		
1	Chief Port, Madras.	50	Gopalapatam.	99	* Padubidri.
2	Adrampatam.	51	Gopaulpore.	100	Pakala.
3	Ammapatam.	52	Ipurpalem.	101	Pamanji.
4	* Attakuyi.	53	Iskapalli.	102	* Parapanna.
5	* Attangarai.	54	Itamukkala.	103	* Parapanangadi.
6	* Attupuram.	55	Juvaladinne.	104	* Pasipatam.
7	Badagarai.	56	* Kanuparti.	105	Paumben.
8	Baindur.	57	* Kapatt.	106	Pentacotta.
9	* Balaipatam.	58	Kasargodi.	107	Penumudi.
10	Bapanapadu.	59	Katacacheri.	108	* Pillaimadam.
11	Barkur.	60	Kattumavadi.	109	Point Calimere.
12	Barwah.	61	* Kavvayi.	110	Ponani.
13	* Bekal.	62	Kilakarai.	111	Ponnapudi.
14	* Bendamurlanka.	63	Kodiempalliem.	112	Porto-Novo.
15	Beypoor.	64	* Kolam.	113	* Pudi.
16	Bimlipatam.	65	* Kottaikal.	114	Pudimadaka
17	* Bodivanipalem.	66	Kottaipatam.	115	* Pudiangadi (Malabar).
18	* Cadalondi.	67	Kottapalem.	116	* Pudiangadi (do.).
19	Calicut.	68	Kottapatam.	117	* Pudupatam.
20	Calingapatam.	69	Krishnajipatam.	118	Pundi.
21	Callayi.	70	Krishnapatam.	119	Quilandi.
22	Cannanore.	71	Kulasegarapatam.	120	Ramapatam.
23	* Carungadu.	72	Kundapur.	121	* Rameswaram.
24	* Caup.	73	* Kurkuyi.	122	Shirur.
25	Chennayapalem.	74	* Kuttayi.	123	Sonapore.
26	* Chombayi.	75	* Madayi.	124	Sundrapandiapatam.
27	Chowghat.	76	Msipadu.	125	* Talayi.
28	Cochin.	77	* Malpe.	126	Tanur.
29	Cocanada.	78	Mandapam.	127	Tellicherry.
30	Coilpatam.	79	Mangalore.	128	* Terupalancudi.
31	* Conada.	80	Manjeshwar.	129	Tirumalavasal.
32	Coringa.	81	* Marakayapatam.	130	Tondi.
33	* Covelong.	82	Masulipatam.	131	Toputorai.
34	Cuddalore (South Arcot).	83	* Merkanam.	132	Tranquebar.
35	* Cuddalore (Malabar).	84	* Molankadava.	133	* Trikodi.
36	Cumbla.	85	Morutota.	134	Tummalapenta.
37	* Damodarapatam.	86	Mottupalli.	135	Tupili.
38	* Darmapatam.	87	* Mudiapatam.	136	Tuticorin.
39	Devipatam.	88	Mulki.	137	* Uchil.
40	Dugarazupatam.	89	* Muttungal.	138	* Udiavar.
41	* Elatur.	90	Muttupettai (Tanjore).	139	Udipi.
42	* Emanangundu.	91	* Muttupettai (Madura).	140	* Uppada.
43	* Ennore.	92	Nagayalanka.	141	* Vaippar.
44	* Ermal.	93	Nagore.	142	Valangani.
45	* Ervadi.	94	* Nambidalai.	143	* Valanokkam.
46	* Etticolam.	95	Narsapur.	144	* Vedalai.
47	* Ezhara.	96	Nayakankotta.	145	* Velliangode.
48	Gangadipalem.	97	Negapatam.	146	Vizagapatam.
49	Ganjam.	98	Nizampatam.		

The places marked with an asterisk * show ports in which there is no trade at present, but which are authorized places for the landing and shipment of goods.

No.	Names.	No.	Names.	No.	Names.
			Non-British Indian Ports.		
	Travancore.	7	Manakodam.	15	Quilon.
		8	Mangalamarattupula.	16	Velinjam.
1	Allepey.	9	Palliport.		
2	Anjengo.	10	Paranur.		*Cochin.*
3	Colachel.	11	Puar.		
4	Katur.	12	Punthorai.	1	Cranganore.
5	Kayankolam.	13	Poracand.	2	Maliyapuram.
6	Manakudi.	14	Pattanam.	3	Narrakal.
			French Ports.		
1	Karikal.	3	Pondicherry.		
2	Mahe.	4	Yanam.		

Tinnevelly chank and pearl fisheries.

The pearl and chank fisheries in this Presidency are connected with the Marine Department, inasmuch as they are under the superintendence at present of the Master Attendant of Tuticorin; they are treated however as a branch of revenue and are administered by the Revenue Board. The Tinnevelly chank or conch-shell fishery was some years ago carried on under Government management, the shells being sold to private persons who exported them to Bengal. Afterwards a change was made in the management, and the right of fishery was sold for a term of years. This plan was found to be undesirable, and in 1861 a system of licenses was introduced, which continued up to 1876, the annual revenue realized being between Rupees 4,800 and 6,000. Since 1876 the fishing has again been conducted under Government management. The gross receipts from the fishery in 1877-78 were Rupees 31,267, the expenses were Rupees 8,363 and the net profit was Rupees 22,904. The divers in the year just named were paid at the rate of Rupees 20 for 1,000 shells, and the prices obtained by Government were Rupees 91 for 1,000 shells if in good condition and Rupees 10 if "tight," that is to say, exceeding a certain size and wormed. The pearl banks on the Tinnevelly coast are of very ancient origin. The old head-quarters were at the Ramnad promontory, but for the last two centuries the head-quarters have been at Tuticorin, ninety miles north-east of Cape Comorin. In 1822 the Tuticorin pearl fishery contributed about Rupees 1,30,000 to the revenue, and in 1830 the yield was worth about Rupees 1,00,000. Between this and 1861 there were no fisheries, as the beds seemed to be exhausted. The causes assigned were the widening of the Paumben channel which increased the current and the interference of the chank divers. In 1856 an examination was made, the results of which showed the possibility of a fishery in 1861. Two fisheries actually

took place in 1861 and 1862, the total amount realized being Rupees 3,78,581; since then, although oyster spat has on several occasions fallen on the banks, and hopes have been entertained of lucrative fisheries, they have all ended in disappointment, the young oysters being destroyed by predatory fish which abound in these seas. No means have yet been devised for preventing this and for the present all hopes of profitable fisheries have been abandoned. The pearl fisheries are conducted entirely on account of Government, the divers employed being given one-third of all oysters they bring up subject to certain rules. The Government share of the oysters is sold by auction at so much per 1,000. The steamer *Margaret Northcote* and the boats *Pearl* and *Edith* form a guard establishment at the pearl banks, the steamer being used for other duties when not required for inspection there. No crews are at present entertained for the *Pearl* and *Edith*, and the latter boat has been lent to the Marine Department at Paumben until her services are again needed.

AGRICULTURAL PROTECTION.

Wild animals.

The Government offer rewards for killing elephants, tigers, cheetahs, bears, wolves and hyænas. Collectors pay the rewards on production of the skin, or other satisfactory evidence. Cheetahs and hyænas form the most frequent cases.

Road avenues

Road avenues are in most cases under the charge of the Local Fund Boards, nearly all the roads in the country being undertaken by them. Where this is not the case, Collectors take charge of the avenues.

SECTION IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

AGRICULTURE.

Description of cultivable lands.

THE land in every Government village, as plotted out by the old original Peimash or Survey, or by the operations of the recent Revenue Survey and Settlement, falls into two main divisions, the uncultivable portion and the cultivable. The former goes by the general name of poramboke, and consists of various classes of land which from one cause or another are uncultivable or not likely to be cultivated, such as hills, rocks, jungles, and other lands not naturally cultivable; and of lands reserved for public purposes, viz., village sites, roads, beds of tanks, channels, cattle stands, burial grounds, &c. As has already been explained in Section II no revenue is realized from poramboke lands, except a few miscellaneous items; it is not classified or assessed by the Revenue Settlement Department, and it is only surveyed by the Survey Department when it consists of small blocks interspersed in cultivable lands. In the case of all portions of a village area which are considered to be in any way likely to be cultivated, whether on the irrigated or unirrigated system, the land is surveyed and marked off into distinct numbers or fields by the Survey Department, each field is examined and classified by the Revenue Settlement Department, and the amount of Government due or assessment chargeable thereon is fixed and placed on record. Any one taking up this land knows in advance that he will have to pay so much and no more in the form of Government assessment upon it; this land is consequently called the assessed land, or sometimes the ayacut or cultivable area of the village. Assessed land will, of course, include Inam lands, though the terms made with the Inamdar are for the moment special, and full assessment is not levied. It is not often that the whole of the assessed land in the village has already been taken up by cultivators. In each village there may be said therefore to be a portion of assessed land which is offered but has not yet been taken up, and which forms the

margin of cultivation, being always of poorer soil than the rest of the ayacut; this is otherwise called assessed waste. Villages have communal rights of grazing over assessed waste. Deducting this portion, the remainder of the ayacut consists of lands in the occupation of cultivators, and for the most part actually cultivated by them; this is called the cultivated area. In some cases the lands will from one cause or another be left temporarily waste by the occupiers, who will not nevertheless resign them. These occasional waste portions are ascertainable from the cultivation accounts; they can therefore be deducted and the remainder will represent the area actually under crops. The following figures show to a certain extent the proportion of acreage belonging at a recent date to each of these four main classes of lands for an area of, say, 65,664,000 acres. The whole area of the Presidency is 88,523,520 acres, but the balance consists of lands for which particulars of cultivable or uncultivable lands are not known, lands lying outside villages, forest lands, &c. The four classes of lands are of course locally interspersed, and the division is merely a paper division :—

	ACRES.
1. Poramboke or uncultivable	23,964,160
2. Assessed waste not occupied	14,183,329
3. Assessed land occupied but not cultivated	
4. Assessed lands under crops	27,516,511
Total ...	65,664,000

Distribution of soils, as affecting agriculture.

The greater part of the Madras Presidency is covered with soils that were originally formed by the disintegration of rocks of the metamorphic and igneous systems. The soils derived from the rocks of the first-mentioned system, gneiss, mica, quartz, &c., which prevail the most widely, are very inferior; especially when, as is the case in many parts of Southern India, they occur as sedentary soils, that is to say, when they rest on the rock from which they were originally formed. The extensive ranges of mountains known as the Pulneys, Anamalais, and Nilgiris are composed of granitic rocks, the decomposition of which, especially where the felspar occurs as orthoclase, affords a productive soil in situations where the rainfall is not excessive. The minor ranges of hills, of which there are many scattered over the Presidency, consist chiefly of syenite and quartz rocks; the former yields on decomposition a productive soil, but the soils derived from the latter are always inferior, and sometimes perfectly sterile. The area of sedentary soil derived from inferior rocks is very considerable, but it fortunately happens that owing to the gigantic scale on which the forces of nature have operated in Southern India, there is a wide extent of transported soils, formed of the disintegrated portions of the rocks of other formations. Of this class is the black cotton soil,

an alluvial soil met with all over the Presidency, sometimes in isolated patches of only a few acres in area, and sometimes in large plains of hundreds of square miles. The depth of this soil varies from 12 inches to from 12 to 15 feet. It is closely allied to the black earth of Southern Russia, and evidently occupies the sites of dried-up lakes. Its most characteristic form is a black or bluish mud, tenacious in wet weather and deeply seamed in dry weather. From its unusual power of absorbing and retaining moisture, this soil is on the whole in great request. It contains very little organic matter, usually not more than 4 per cent. It frequently has underlying it a deposit of concretionary lime-stone, which, if the soil is shallow, reduces its agricultural value considerably. Another characteristic soil met with in all parts of the Presidency is the red soil, so called from its peculiar red appearance, derived from a large admixture of the peroxide of iron. This soil differs very considerably in its character; in some places forming extensive plains with a hard crusted surface almost incapable of producing even indigenous vegetation and verging on laterite, and in other places being friable, open, easily worked, very hygroscopic from the oxide of iron it contains, and generally fertile. As a rule, the most fertile tracts of land occupy low situations; most of them are of alluvial origin, and from the facilities they afford for irrigation, they generally form the irrigated area. The land most in need of irrigation from its extreme dryness and the natural poverty of its original constituents, is obviously the most difficult to provide with irrigation water, but such land constitutes three-fourths of the food-producing area of the country.

The seasons with reference to cultivation.

The most important cultivating season of the year in the greater part of the Presidency begins with the first rains that inaugurate the north-east monsoon; this is generally about the end of September, the sowing month being October and the harvest month February. Over the other portions of the Presidency the crops are raised under the influence of the rains accompanying the south-west monsoon, and in this case the sowing is performed in the months of April and May, while the crops are harvested in August and September. All cultivation, whether artificially irrigated or not, depends more or less on the monsoon seasons. Land irrigated from wells is naturally the least so, and land irrigated from tanks, which do not in all cases get their supply from the immediate rainfall, are more independent than unirrigated land. The unirrigated land is absolutely dependent on the falling rain. Irrigated land, especially that under wells, has sometimes two crops in the year. Two crops can be got off unirrigated land only in certain highly favored localities.

Treatment of irrigated land.

Irrigated land forms about 15 per cent. of the area under occupation. It is watered exclusively from rivers, river channels, and tanks, and in most instances the water flows upon the land by gravitation.

The area of land irrigated directly from rivers is extremely small compared with the area watered from river-channels. The reason of this is that the beds of most of the rivers on the plains are so frequently changed, or are situated in such deep valleys that it is difficult to get the water thence to the cultivated land. Hence the practice of putting dams or anicuts across rivers. Dams are constructed where there is space for the storage of water, and where the water can be raised to a height sufficient to command a suitable area of arable land. Probably the supplies of river water might with advantage be cut off further inland than at present. From the dams the water passes along channels to the cultivated land; the beds of these channels being kept so high that the water will flow by gravitation through sluices into the minor distributing channels. In many instances the irrigation water cannot be secured at a sufficient height, and the water is then raised from the channel by a picottah or similar means. Tanks are always placed in situations where the surface drainage of a more or less considerable area of country naturally flows or collects. Sometimes they are natural and form shallow lakes; but as a rule they are artificial and occupy a situation on land having a slight slope. In selecting the position for a tank the object is to secure for the upper slope a large collecting area and to command on the lower slope a sufficient area of arable land for watering by gravitation. Artificial tanks are always more efficacious than natural tanks equally supplied with water, because the land irrigated from the artificial tank is from its position generally well drained, while that irrigated from the natural tank is frequently altogether without drainage, being but a portion of the bed of some original lake. The only crop grown on this description of land is paddy. Where an abundance of water is available throughout the year, two crops are grown annually, but most of the land as already said produces only one crop. The irrigation water is usually supplied on each occasion to a depth of from 1 to 6 inches, and the supply is made according to its abundance on every day, every other day, or every third day, during the growth of the crop. A depth of from 8 to 12 feet of water may be taken as the common consumption in the growth of a complete crop of paddy. In many parts of the Presidency the practice is to sow the paddy broadcast on a semi-liquid soil which is brought into this state by frequent waterings and stirrings. The practice is also common of transplanting young seedling paddy plants from nursery beds into the field. Beyond weeding and watering, the paddy land receives no attention while under crop. Some varieties of paddy are six months on the ground, others only four months. The crop is cut when dead ripe, and is thrashed by striking the sheaves on a log of wood or by the treading of cattle. The agricultural practice in dealing

with irrigated land is said to be capable of improvement in the direction of a more economical use of the water; as long however as the ryot is unable to apply manure to his irrigated land he is under the necessity of using a large quantity of irrigation water in order to secure silt in its place. There are many practical difficulties in the way of procuring manure; there is also a deficiency of capital to invest in it.

Treatment of unirrigated land.

Eighty per cent. of the food-producing area of the Presidency consists of dry land. A very large area of this tract is covered by soils of the lowest value; there are however considerable areas of really good soil. The dry lands are in the hands of poorer cultivators than the wet lands, and it is probable that their cultivation is more susceptible of improvement than that of the wet lands. The black soils are usually cropped with cotton and cholum. The red soils are variously cropped; in some districts they constitute the chief cotton-producing areas, but when good they are cropped with the different cereals. The grey soils produce varagoo, korraloo, and inferior cumbu, cholum, &c. Sometimes two or even three crops are sown simultaneously on the same ground, so that if one fails the other may succeed; choice being made of crops that do not all bear at one time. The crops grown on the unirrigated land are sown both broadcast and in lines, but the former is more usual. The tillage consists usually of ploughing in various directions; the native plough stirs but does not turn over the soil and seldom penetrates to a greater depth than three inches. The seeding is always heavy, and there is probably a waste of seed. The actual operation of sowing is either performed by broadcasting the seed over the land by the hand, or by the aid of a drill formed of three or four bamboo tubes connected at the top to a fixed hopper into which the seed is placed and from which it passes through the bamboo tubes into the soil. During the growth of the crop but little is done in after-cultivation or hoeings. The crops are all harvested by the hand, the work being paid for in kind.

Treatment of pasture land.

Grass is encouraged to grow spontaneously in all parts of the village area where it will not interfere with other crops, but special grass-crops raised from seed, or developed by irrigation, are as yet very rare in this Presidency, the remuneration not proving sufficient. Ryots will frequently leave permanently uncultivated the least productive portions of their holdings for the sake of giving a better pasture to the live-stock required for farm labor than is to be got in the porambóke land. Or they will leave the land temporarily fallow in the same way, with a view to combining pasture with passive fertilization of the soil. With the exception however of certain cases, yearly diminishing, where a light assessment is placed on arable land reserved for pasture, the ryots have to do this at their own expense, paying full assessment

for the lands thus employed. The principle of deriving remuneration from grass and fodder crops in the form of farm manure will doubtless be more acted upon as capital increases. There is no want of intelligence on the part of the cultivator.

Treatment of garden lands.

Garden land is land irrigated with water artificially raised from wells, tanks, or other sources. The crops usually grown are those that will mature satisfactorily with from five to eight waterings in a month. The water is raised by cattle-power and manual-power only, horse-power or steam-power being not yet in use. For very low lifts a bale is used, that is to say, a bucket suspended by two ropes, one of which on either side is held by a man. In baling the bucket is allowed to drop into the water and when full swung up to the height needed, where a third man who stands in the water catches and capsizes it. For higher lifts, up to about 12 or 13 feet, the picottah is used. This is a horizontal pole balanced on an upright post of a height regulated by the length of the horizontal pole. The arrangement is something like that of the ordinary weighing balance. At the end of the horizontal pole which projects over the water, an upright rod is attached, generally of bamboo, and to the lower end of this the bucket is fastened. In working the picottah, an alternate up-and-down motion is given to the arms of the horizontal pole, a bucket being brought up each time the pole dips and rises. The motion is generally produced by the backward and forward walk of a man along the pole; as he advances along the pole towards the water the bucket dips and fills, and as he walks back in the contrary direction, it rises to the required elevation, and is there guided and capsized by another laborer. Where the lift is great two and sometimes three men are employed on the horizontal pole. In cases where the lift is moderate a man on the pole is frequently dispensed with, a heavy ball of clay only being attached to the end of the pole opposite to that at which the bucket rod is attached. In this case a single man stands over the well, pushes down the bucket, guides it, and capsizes it at the point of discharge. For low lifts the picottah works at a very moderate cost, especially when worked by the cultivator himself. The picottah in use in different districts varies in construction. In well lifts, which are too high for the picottah, that is to say for depths from 12 to 40 feet, the "Single Mhote" is usually employed worked by cattle. This arrangement consists of a horizontal roller fixed over the well on uprights of three or four feet in height while a rope travels over the roller; at one end of the rope a skin bucket is attached, and the other end is fastened to the yoke of a pair of cattle. At the place where the water is to be discharged from the bucket there is a cistern, and in front of the cistern an inclined path of 20 or 30 feet in length according to the depth of the water. When raising the water the cattle walk down the slope, and when the bucket descends to the water

they are backed up again. In this way, the cattle alternately ascending and descending the slope, the bucket is filled and brought to the surface. The arrangement is very simple, but is rude and probably trying to the cattle, the backward journey being often up a very steep slope. The cost of raising the water by this method is high. An improved lift has lately been introduced, by the aid of which it is anticipated that the water will be raised at one-half the cost. It is very desirable that garden cultivation should be extended, as a check on disastrous consequences of long continued droughts. At present about two per cent. of the occupied area of the Presidency is what is called "garden land." The crops grown are tobacco, sugar-cane, chillies, wheat, the ordinary cereals, &c.

Rotation of crops and fallows.

There is no established system of rotatory crops, but the principle of not overstraining the resources of the soil is fully understood by the ryots. A crop requiring little nourishment generally succeeds an exhausting crop, and fallows are common in the case of inferior soils. The liberty allowed to the ryots of relinquishing and taking up lands frequently brings the principle of leaving lands fallow into imperceptible play. Rotation and fallows are practised mainly in regard to unirrigated lands, and irrigated lands planted with sugar-cane; in the ordinary irrigated lands, which generally consist of small holdings, manuring is more frequent and is considered sufficient to secure a good crop without rotation. Considerable care is bestowed on manuring garden lands under wells. Lands near villages are better manured than those at a distance, for obvious reasons.

Proportions of different cultivations.

The following statement shows the proportion actually existing between different species of crops throughout the Presidency at a recent date :—

Cereal food-grains	75·6
Pulses	9·8
Oil seeds	5·2
Garden crops	1·8
Indigo	1·4
Cotton	6·2
	100

The following distribution has been suggested as what would probably best suit the requirements of the country generally :—

Under Restorative crops	5·3	per cent.
„ Exhaustive do.	75·5	„
„ Fallow or water	19·2	„
	100·0	„

Cotton cultivation.

The following statement giving the acreage under cotton in each district during a recent average year will show the cotton-producing powers of the different parts of the Presidency :—

Districts.	Acres.
Ganjam	3,302
Vizagapatam	13,107
Godavari	10,348
Kistna	219,267
Nellore	18,378
Cuddapah	76,074
Bellary	385,596
Kurnool	243,637
Madras	...
Chingleput	3
North Arcot	263
South Arcot	16,303
Tanjore	4,061
Trichinopoly	6,731*
Madura	95,101
Tinnevelly	281,569
Coimbatore	184,517
Nilgiris	...
Salem	12,630
South Canara	164
Malabar	...
Total ...	1,571,537

—Cotton experiments.

During the last few years several experiments have been made with cotton of different varieties on the farm at Saidapet. The soils of the farm are very sandy, insoluble silica constituting nearly 90 per cent. of their entire weight, while the percentage of plant-food they contain naturally is extremely small. These soils are therefore much inferior to the "cotton" soils of Southern India, which are alluvial in their character and contain a moderately large percentage of clay and organic matter. It was only by the judicious use of manure that fair results were obtained in cotton culture at Saidapet. The following varieties of cotton were experimentally grown with the results noted:—

WESTERN.—A 5-acre field sown with this variety of cotton and maize in alternate lines yielded 1,766 lb. of seed cotton equal to 353 lb. per acre, and this was in addition to a fair crop of grain and straw from the maize plants that grew in alternate lines with the cotton plants. HINGINGHAUT AND BUNIE.—These varieties are grown largely in Bombay, where they are said to be highly appreciated. At Saidapet the results obtained with them differed but little from those yielded by ordinary "Western" seed. YCA VALLEY.—This valuable species of cotton grows well at Saidapet and produces a lint that is long, white and silky, resembling very much the cotton lint imported into England from the Fiji Islands. But unfortunately the Yca Valley cotton plant has almost died out at Saidapet from the repeated attacks of a borer which confined its depredations to this species of cotton. Arrangements are, it is believed, in operation for obtaining a fresh supply of seed

* Does not include area of cotton cultivated with other crops.

from Brazil. NEW ORLEANS.—This species of cotton has been grown with considerable success at the farm, a return per acre of from 100 to 180 lb. of clean lint in addition to a fair crop of maize having been frequently obtained. This species of cotton is probably peculiarly adapted for cultivation under an improved system of farming; indigenous varieties are very liable to run to stem and leaf under the influences of manure, while the returns from this species of cotton are always large when manure is liberally used. The plant seems however to have two or three objectionable characteristics; it bears at very uncertain intervals, and produces gatherings that vary greatly in amount, while the harvest is spread over several months, thus necessitating a considerable expenditure in gathering the crop and in keeping down the weeds, which from the open shade the cotton affords grow very freely amongst it; but these defects also, to a certain extent, characterize indigenous varieties of cotton. Crops sown in September do not begin to bear until the following March, and the plants must remain on the ground until the end of August or the beginning of September to admit of a fair return being obtained. As in the Cotton States of America the sowings are made in April and May, and the whole of the harvest is over before the end of December, it is probably desirable that a supply of fresh seed should be obtained from the Southern States, preference being given to the Mexican variety, from which the true New Orleans variety is said to have originated. It is said that the ordinary black-seed New Orleans cotton was introduced into America from India. It appears desirable that a maize or cholum crop should always be sown with the cotton crop in alternate lines; in this way the food-producing area of the country is not lessened by a larger area of land under cotton, nor will the returns from the area under cotton be materially diminished if the cultivation is properly conducted. The cholum and maize plants grow upright and do not interfere with the early growth of the cotton plants, and before the cotton plants begin to throw out lateral branches, the maize or cholum will be ready for harvesting. The New Orleans plant was treated as a biennial, but the results were not satisfactory, the cotton of the second year being much less in quantity, while its fibre was harsh and short. EGYPTIAN.—This species of cotton has yielded very fair results at Saidapet, though as yet it has been cultivated there only on a very limited scale. Its cultivation is somewhat costly, as the plant throws out many lateral branches, thus preventing the use of cattle in weeding the land; but it is hoped that by sowing only the seed of the most upright-growing plants this habit may in time be overcome. The lint produced is soft and silky, and it separates readily from the seed. The experiments above described afford ground for thinking that with due care and a judicious use of manure the cultivation of foreign cotton of finer quality than the indigenous cotton

of local origin can be successfully introduced into this country. It is desirable, however, that further experiments should be tried on a larger scale both on the Government Farm at Saidapet and on the District Farms when established, and the matter engages attention.

Indigo cultivation.

The following is a statement for indigo similar to that given above for cotton :—

Districts.	Acres.
Ganjam	986
Vizagapatam	3,803
Godavari	1,739
Kistna	42,975
Nellore	57,519
Cuddapah	62,824
Bellary	10,358
Kurnool	40,556
Madras	...
Chingleput	5,157
North Arcot	13,728
South Arcot	61,318
Tanjore	472
Trichinopoly	837
Madura	72
Tinnevelly	245
Coimbatore	...
Nilgiris	...
Salem	2,087
South Canara	...
Malabar	...
Total	304,676

Wheat cultivation.

The cultivation of wheat in this Presidency is very limited, and is chiefly confined to six districts as shown below :—

Districts.	Acres.
Kistna	2,145
Cuddapah	2,283
Bellary	3,387
Kurnool	5,557
Coimbatore	2,108
Nilgiris	3,199
All other districts	667
Total	19,346

The quantity of wheat exported to foreign ports and British ports beyond the Presidency during 1875-76 was 8,764 cwt., value Rs. 36,292.

Coffee planting.

The principal coffee tract of Southern India is along the Western Coast, and coffee estates extend in nearly an unbroken line along the summits and slopes of the Western Ghats from the northern limits of Mysore down to Cape Comorin. The only portions of the area within the limits of the Madras Government are the Wynad tract and the Nilgiri Hills. Coffee plants were introduced as a curiosity into the Wynad

about fifty years ago by Major Bevan; the first regular plantation was opened out by Mr. Glasson in 1840 on a hill at Manantoddy, and was soon followed by others. Nearly all the land taken up at this period was what is known as grass or bamboo land, and in consequence most of the estates proved unprofitable. Of many of them not a trace except the ruins of bungalows remains at the present day. After the first attempts coffee cultivation was transferred to South Wynad. For ten or fifteen years it made little progress. In 1855 and 1856 a number of new estates were opened out, some too hastily and consequently with little success. In 1862 the return showed 9,932 acres under cultivation. In 1865 there were 200 estates covering 14,613 acres. An official inquiry was made on the subject of Wynad coffee in the year 1868, and according to the returns then made the average was 29,909·08, of which 21,479·54 acres were held by Europeans and 8,429·54 acres were held by natives. Subsequent returns have shown no increase in the acreage until quite recently when high prices have stimulated cultivation. At the present moment there are about 32,000 acres of matured plants, 10,000 acres of immature plants, and 27,000 acres of land taken up for planting, but not yet planted. The average yield per acre in the Wynad is said to be about 200 lb., and the cost of cultivation about Rupees 250 per acre. The following table showing the quantities of Wynad coffee shipped on the Malabar Coast during a period of twelve years indicates nearly all the crops, as very little passes out by Mysore or Coimbatore:—

Years.	Cwts.
1856-57	32,658
1857-58	16,204
1858-59	36,934
1859-60	49,680
1860-61	48,742
1861-62	91,080
1862-63	43,907
1863-64	91,947
1864-65	110,548
1865-66	125,891
1866-67	66,552
1867-68	128,011

Coffee cultivation on the Nilgiris was reported on in 1872. A large area of land on the Nilgiris has proved to be admirably suited for the cultivation of the coffee shrub. Not less than 19,600 acres are now under coffee plantations, besides 8,951 acres taken up for planting. Twenty years ago the area under coffee did not much exceed 500 acres. This great increase is entirely the result of private enterprise, and has added much to the prosperity of the Nilgiris, while at the same time benefiting the districts immediately adjoining. In the establishment of these coffee estates a property has been created worth about five millions of rupees, on which the annual expenditure cannot be less

than two millions of rupees. Of the total expenditure about one-third is for the payment of wages to coolies; and most of this is carried into the low country, either in payment for food grains consumed by plantation coolies, or as cash carried by the coolies themselves when they return to their homes. Estimating that the sum sent into the low country in this way represents annually Rupees 6,00,000, this will support about 14,000 families of laboring people. Moreover in carrying coffee to the coast, and sorting, packing, &c., a large amount of other labor is employed. Until a few years previous to 1850 the coffee plantations on the Nilgiris were found only on the eastern slopes, but they have now been extended to the southern, northern, and north-western slopes; there are also some extensive plantations in the Ouchterlony Valley and in the neighbourhood of Coonoor. Coffee cultivation is also carried on on the Shervaroy Hills in the Salem District, where nearly 5,000 acres are under the crop, and a similar area of land has been taken up for planting; on the Pulney and Sirumalai Hills in Madura, where nearly 3,000 acres have been planted and a considerable area has been taken up for planting; and in the Tinnevelly and Coimbatore Districts, in the former of which there are about 2,000 acres under coffee and in the latter about 800 acres. The total area under coffee in the Presidency is as follows:—mature plants, acres 5,74,951; immature plants, acres 1,46,251; taken up for planting but not yet planted, acres 43,821. The total approximate yield is 12,806,195 lb., or about 110 lbs. per acre.

Tea cultivation has not the same interest in Southern India as coffee cultivation, and there are few plantations except on the Nilgiris. The tea plant was introduced on these hills nearly forty years ago, but it is only during the last ten years that any real progress has been made in the cultivation. The experiments made between 1835 and 1840 were useful in proving that the tea plant would thrive on the hills, but little else resulted from them, though the opinions frequently expressed by Mr. John Sullivan and Monsieur Perrottet, and founded on these experiments that the greater part of the district was well suited for tea culture, have now been proved to be accurate. It is difficult to account for the little interest that was taken in tea cultivation previous to 1865, for there was evidence that the plant would succeed well. At the present time the area under tea is as follows:— Tea planting.

	Acres.
Mature plants	1,907
Immature do.	1,362
Taken up for planting, but not yet planted ...	3,681

The oldest estates are planted with tea of the China variety; those that have recently been opened, on situations not too exposed, are

generally planted with the Assam variety, or with plants produced from a cross between the China and Assam varieties. The China variety is the most hardy and best adapted for high and exposed positions, but grows slowly, and produces very little leaf. The Assam variety is suited only for sheltered situations on rich fertile soil; when so circumstanced it grows rapidly, and is a large producer of leaf. The hybrid is the most generally useful, combining the leaf-producing quality of the Assam with the hardihood of the China variety. Most of the tea estates on the Nilgiris are on land which was formerly under grass; such land especially, if heavily covered by ferns, gives good results, but shola land is preferred when it can be obtained equally well situated, as on such land the shrub grows with much greater rapidity, and gives earlier and heavier flushes of leaf. The plantations are generally small, ranging from 50 to 80 acres in extent, and besides these there are numerous gardens varying from plots of a single acre up to 15 or 20 acres. The bulk of the plantations appear to have been started as experimental plots, and gradually increased until they have reached their present area. They are generally not well arranged, and are ill-provided with buildings; many are altogether without buildings, being worked in connection with some other estate. The approximate yield for the year 1877-78 was 226,389 lb. or 118 lb. per acre. The cost of cultivation varies from Rupees 100 to Rupees 130 per acre, so that in this industry alone Rupees 3,00,000 are annually expended, besides the cost of manufacture, which is about 2 annas per pound.

Tobacco cultivation.

Tobacco cultivation in this Presidency has recently been the subject of an official inquiry. Tobacco is grown more or less throughout the Presidency, with the exception of Malabar and the Hill Ranges; but the chief localities of production are the alluvial lands of the Godavari District, where is grown the well known "Lunka" tobacco (so named from the lunkas or river islands on which it is cultivated), and parts of the Coimbatore and Madura Districts, from which the Trichinopoly cheroot manufacturers draw their supplies of raw material. The plant is grown on almost every description of soil, from black loam to sand, and from irrigated land to high arid sites. Alluvial lands are preferred; then high ground, and such places as deserted village sites, and back-yards of houses, the latter on account of the salts impregnating the soil, and also probably for convenience of position as regards manuring and watching and curing the produce. Of the more esteemed tobaccos used for European consumption, the best of the Godavari produce is grown on these alluvial lands which receive rich deposits of silt in the river floods and are out of the influence of the sea-freshes; while the Dindigul tobacco is produced on a carefully cultivated red loam to which an alluvial character has

been artificially imparted. Some of the highest priced tobacco is grown on rich dry land under irrigation, but this while suited for chewing, is too coarse in texture of leaf and too pungent in flavour for smoking. In some parts irrigation is practised and in others it is dispensed with; only a small quantity of water is supplied to the plant, and as a rule not by gravitation, but by mechanical appliances, and preferably from wells of brackish water containing potassic salts. Excessive damp is prejudicial, and the seed-beds and soil generally are superficially drained or stand high. The crop while young is gently watered by hand, and heavy rains detract from the quality of the tobacco, the tobacco grown on ordinary irrigable lands being generally inferior. The manures used are the droppings of sheep and goats penned on the land previously to cultivation, cattle-dung and urine, ashes and sweepings. In Nellore salt-earth is used. The manures are very plentifully applied to all soils except alluvial lands. The seed is invariably sown in seed-beds. The seasons of cultivation vary according to local climatic considerations. As a rule, sowing commences after the local rains from July to October, though tobacco is sometimes grown as a second crop commencing in January. The site of cultivation is thoroughly ploughed and manured, the seed germinates in some eight days after sowing, and the seedlings are transplanted in the course of some six weeks on attaining a height of five or six inches, into holes a foot to a yard apart, sometimes in ridges, sometimes on the flat surface of the field. In some localities the seed-beds and young plants are protected from the extreme heat of the sun by means of mats, &c., and all leaves except ten or twelve are nipped off to strengthen those left; the flowers are also promptly nipped off with the exception of those purposely left for seed. The leaves begin to ripen in the course of some two months from transplantation, and as soon as one or two turn colour, the whole crop is collected. This is effected generally by cutting the stem with a knife, though in Ganjam and the alluvial lands of Vizagapatam the leaves are nipped off separately, and in part of Tanjore some leaves are first plucked in January and the stem and remaining leaves cut down in May or June. As a rule no second crop is gathered, and where the after sprouts are collected at all they are of very inferior quality. The process of gradually drying and fermenting is effected by modes slightly differing in detail. In Nellore, for instance, the cut leaves are hung in the sun for two days, put in heaps, turned every two days, and ranged in layers for twenty days, during which time they are frequently turned. They are then tied in bundles, dipped in water, sweetened with date jaggery, and are then ready for sale. In other parts, as in the Salem District, the plants are left a day or two in the field, then exposed to the sun and dew alternately for a week, then wrapped in straw and buried in

the ground for a week, after which the leaves are stripped from the stems, made into bundles, placed in straw, and put under heavy weights, with their ends exposed for six weeks, the piles in which they are laid being opened and turned every other day. In other localities the leaves, after drying in the fields for a day or two, are hung over poles or ropes, preferably in the shade, in regular drying sheds or in the cultivators' houses, and subsequently stacked in heaps, which are opened out and pressed together again at stated intervals until the requisite curing is effected. Occasionally the leaves are sprinkled with jaggery water or an infusion of the *Cassia auriculata* while drying, and in Coimbatore the festoons of leaves after being strung are hung up on the milk-hedge (*Euphorbia tirucalli*) to acquire thence a flavour. State interference has been suggested in the case of this industry, but the Government have decided otherwise. Such interference has not been found necessary with indigo or coffee, and it was relinquished in the case of tea when that industry had made much less progress than tobacco has at the present time. The tobacco grown in this Presidency is at present inferior; but it seems clear that this is mainly due to the fact that there is a great demand for the coarse article, and that it is found to pay better to grow a large quantity of inferior leaf than to grow a smaller quantity of superior leaf. European capital would, however, doubtless improve the curing processes. The statistics of the tobacco industry lately obtained are too voluminous to be here inserted.

Agricultural condition of ryots.

Nearly one-half of the whole number of persons shown by the last census as in employment, that is to say, 4,878,890 persons, are given as cultivators. These are adult males above 12 years of age, and peasant proprietors holding land either under Government directly or under Zemindars, &c. The number of holders of Government puttas was at the last census 2,392,064 only, but one putta often includes several members of the same family. Every section of the community, from the Brahmin to the Pariah, and Hindu or Mahomedan, is represented in the list of cultivators. The desire for holding land is as strong as in any other part of the world. Of late years and consequent on the gradual abolition of domestic slavery, the lower orders of the Hindus have become farmers on their own account to a larger extent than before, and their position has improved. The direct taxes to which an agriculturalist in this Presidency is now liable are very numerous, but though the multiplicity of the present taxation is no doubt an unwelcome substitute for the simplicity of the old taxation, all the present taxes and imposts put together amount to no more than the old land assessment. The rise in prices of late years has improved the position of the agriculturalist, and it may be hoped that with increasing resources more capital may be invested in

the development of the soil: The most needy cultivators are those who hold the dry lands.

In addition to the great body of small farmers upwards of two millions of adult males are returned by the census as "laborers," and probably more than three-fourths of these are employed in connection with the cultivation of the land. These represent for the most part the classes of the community who were formerly prædial slaves. The principal caste engaged in inferior agricultural labor is that of the Vannians. Throughout the greater part of the Presidency the agricultural laborer receives his wages in the form of farm produce; and it is only near large towns that money wages are paid. The rate of hire varies from one to two Madras measures of grain per day, the higher rate being that usually given for occasional labor and the lower rate that for long engagements. These two classes of laborers differ very much in their circumstances. The latter have little liberty, being usually in debt to their employers on account of the advance made to them on first taking service. The casual laborer, on the other hand, finds living precarious; he meets with regular employment only at the busy seasons of the year, and during the remainder of the year has to depend upon such work as he can secure on the roads and other public works, or upon the small earnings to be made by selling fuel, grass, &c. in the large villages and towns. It is usual for the wife and other members of the laborer's family to contribute their earnings. The following statement shows the rate of wages of agricultural laborers obtaining in June and December of a recent average year. Wages of certain other laborers have been added for illustration :— Agricultural condition of farm laborers.

Districts.	Average Wages per Month.																	
	Prevailing at the end of June 1875.									At the end of December 1875.								
	Able-bodied Agricultural Laborer.			Syce or Horse-keeper.			Common Mason, Carpenter, or Blacksmith.			Able-bodied Agricultural Laborer.			Syce or Horse-keeper.			Common Mason, Carpenter, or Blacksmith.		
	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.
1. Ganjam ...	3	0	0	6	0	0	7	8	0	3	0	0	6	0	0	7	8	0
2. Vizagapatam ...	4	8	0	6	0	0	9	12	0	4	8	0	6	0	0	9	12	0
3. Godavari ...	6	0	0	6	0	0	12	0	0	6	0	0	7	0	0	12	0	0
4. Kistna ...	7	8	0	7	0	0	12	8	0	7	8	0	7	0	0	12	8	0
5. Nellore ...	6	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	3	8	0	6	0	0	12	8	0
6. Cuddapah ...	7	8	0	6	0	0	22	8	0	7	8	0	6	0	0	22	8	0
7. Bellary ...	4	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	4	0	0	6	0	0	11	4	0
8. Kurnool ...	4	0	0	6	0	0	11	0	0	4	0	0	6	0	0	12	0	0
9. Madras ...	6	8	0	5	8	0	9	6	0	6	0	0	5	8	0	13	12	0
10. Chingleput ...	3	12	0	5	0	0	10	5	4	3	0	0	6	0	0	13	10	8
11. North Arcot ...	4	0	0	7	0	0	15	0	0	4	0	0	7	0	0	14	0	0
12. South Arcot ...	4	0	0	5	0	0	11	4	0	4	11	0	5	0	0	11	4	0
13. Tanjore ...	4	11	0	6	0	0	11	13	4	4	8	0	6	0	0	11	13	4
14. Trichinopoly ...	4	8	0	6	8	0	9	11	0	4	0	0	6	8	0	10	0	0
15. Madura ...	6	0	0	7	0	0	20	0	0	6	0	0	7	0	0	20	0	0
16. Tinnevelly ...	6	0	0	6	0	0	14	6	0	6	4	0	6	0	0	14	6	0
17. Coimbatore ...	4	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	5	8	0	6	0	0	16	0	0
18. Nilgiris ...	7	0	0	8	0	0	25	0	0	7	0	0	8	0	0	25	0	0
19. Salem ...	2	8	0	5	4	0	16	14	0	2	8	0	5	4	0	15	0	0
20. South Canara ...	7	8	0	6	0	0	20	10	0	7	8	0	7	0	0	20	10	0
21. Malabar ...	7	8	0	7	0	0	15	0	0	7	8	0	7	0	0	15	0	0

The wages of agricultural labor have increased during the last quarter of a century, though not in proportion to prices. Where wages are paid in grain it is evidently difficult to secure progressive rates.

Particulars for total agriculturists.

The total number of agriculturists, regarding these as cultivators, laborers, and property-holders combined, is about 7 millions. Thus taken, the proportion of adult male agriculturists to the adult male population, exclusive of Jeypore, the Ganjam Maliahs, Banganapally and Sundur, for which information in regard to the number of agriculturists, &c. is not available, is 71·7 per cent., while the same to the total population of the Presidency, exclusive of the tracts noticed above, is 23·1 per cent. The average is about the same in all the districts. In other parts of India, where, however, male agriculturists above 20 or 15 instead of 12 years of age have been taken as adults, the proportions of adult agriculturists to the total population compare as follows :—.

—	Total Population.	Adult Male Agriculturists.	Per-centage.
1. Madras	30,775,373	* 7,127,072	23
2. Berar	2,231,565	† 448,323	20
3. North-West Provinces	30,781,204	‡ 5,891,502	19
4. Bengal and Assam	64,727,543	† 11,795,677	18
5. Mysore	5,055,412	† 687,113	14
6. British Burmah	2,747,148	† 379,913	14
7. Bombay	16,349,206	† 1,781,736	10
8. Central Provinces	8,201,519	† 756,350	9·2
9. Coorg	168,312	† 14,052	8

The above comparison is not strictly correct, as the standard of age taken for adults is not the same in all provinces. The exact number of male agriculturists between 12 and 20 years included under adults in this Presidency is not known; but, supposing that the number is in the same proportion as the total number of males between those ages is to the total male population, the proportion of male agriculturists above 20 years in Madras to the total population will be about 18 per cent.

Live-stock, treatment and present condition.

The agricultural live-stock of this Presidency consists of cattle, sheep, and goats, horses being almost entirely unrepresented. Cattle are kept for draught, for the dairy, for breeding, and for manure purposes; they are hardly ever fed or fattened for slaughter as in other countries, the meat market being supplied chiefly by the slaughter of worn-out draught cattle, old or barren cows, &c. There are three well distinguished breeds of cattle. The largest is a heavy framed, coarse, slow working bullock of white color, bred chiefly in the Nellore District; the second is a smaller, lighter, more active, and better shaped animal, well adapted for draught purposes, and containing some of the blood

* Adults above 12 years of age. † Adults above 20 years.
‡ Adults above 15 years.

of the celebrated Amrhut Mahal breed; the third is a small black and white and red breed, found throughout the whole of the southern portions of the Presidency. The average live weight of a South Indian bullock is about 350 lb. The sheep yield on the average about 25 lb. of mutton per head. The yield of wool, which is always largely mixed with hair, is usually not more than 1 lb. in the year per head. There are three well marked breeds of sheep. The first is a small-framed animal, with a covering of black or white hairy wool; the second is about the same size, red in color, but destitute of wool, and covered only with short coarse hair; the third is a long legged goat-like animal, characterised by two tassels dependent from its neck, of larger size than the two first named, but producing coarse mutton and no wool. The large losses of cattle from the occurrence of preventible diseases have attracted the attention of Government, and the provisions of the Cattle Diseases' Act have been applied to some districts. At present however there is no agency for enforcing its provisions other than the ordinary Revenue establishment. Attempts are at the present moment being made in Europe to secure the services of a competent Veterinarian to fill the post of Inspector of Cattle Disease.

Fairs and markets are held periodically throughout the Presidency, the latter generally weekly or bi-weekly, and the former on the occasion of different festivals. At the fairs, in addition to the usual sale of agricultural produce, considerable numbers of farm-stock are brought together, especially in the breeding districts. The markets are on a very much smaller scale, and grain and petty articles of domestic use constitute the chief articles of trade. The produce brought for sale to a market is in most instances of no greater bulk than a cooly-load; and live stock is seldom offered. Fairs and Markets.

The prices of food-grains are ascertained by local inquiry at the head-quarters of Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars and reported to the Board of Revenue once a month. The number of local measures of capacity per rupee is given in these reports. The measures are converted in the Board's office into seers' weight of 80 tolas, and a general statement is then published in the Fort St. George Gazette. Once a fortnight a statement is sent to the Government of India for publication in the Gazette of India showing the prices prevailing at the head-quarters of each collectorate. Formerly in this statement retail prices alone were quoted. Arrangements however have now been made for quoting wholesale prices also. These will be the prices at which in great trading markets large transactions are effected between the holders of considerable stocks of grain, &c., and traders purchasing from them; but they will not necessarily represent the prices at which the agricultural community dispose of their produce. The grain Food prices.

markets are now much steadier than they were some years back. The years 1874-75 and 1875-76 may be taken to have been average years; the average retail prices of the principal articles of food for the whole Presidency in those years is shown below:—

Items.	1874-75.	1875-76.
Price of rice, 2nd sort, seers of 80 tolas per rupee ...	15·2	16·0
Do. paddy, do. do.	27·2	28·6
Do. cholum, do. do.	25·7	26·6
Do. cumboo, do. do.	26·0	26·4
Do. ragi, do. do.	27·9	27·9
Do. varagu, do. do.	37·0	30·6
Do. wheat, do. do.	10·7	11·4
Do. salt, do. do.	15·7	15·8
Do. cotton, per candy	111	104

General agricultural statistics.

General statistical information regarding agriculture is now available to Government on the following subjects:—(1) Area cultivated and uncultivated; (2) Area irrigated from Government sources; (3) Crops cultivated and area under crops; (4) Prices of food grains, and (5) Price of labor. This information is not quite sufficient, and even as much as this is not available for Zemindari and Inam villages. The question of collecting agricultural statistics on a more extended scale, especially in such matters as the amount of food production in the country each season, the average yield of land per acre, the average rent per acre of each crop, the consumption of the several districts, and of exports or imports of grain by land, &c., was referred to the Board of Revenue for consideration in 1876. It was estimated then that additional establishments, costing $2\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees per annum, would be required to secure proper supervision and for tabulation of results. This matter is still in abeyance.

Direct Government operations.

The Government Agricultural Department in this Presidency is confined at present in great measure to the operations connected with the Government farms already established or hereafter to be established. The officers of the department are however available for making tours, for answering references from districts, and for many miscellaneous duties in connection with agricultural questions. The proposed extension of agricultural education in connection with the department will be mentioned in the next paragraph. The department is now under the control of a Superintendent, who is placed immediately under the orders of the Board of Revenue. He has two Assistants who have received an agricultural training in Europe, and also certain office establishments; the cost of this establishment and of such experiments as are made from time to time is met partly by a Government grant and partly from receipts in the farm and certain Local Funds. At present there are only two Government farms in operation, both situated at Saidapet close to the Presidency town, and in fact forming practically

but one farm. It is intended gradually to open similar farms in other districts. Four have actually been sanctioned, but from various causes none of them has yet been opened. The idea of establishing Government farms in this Presidency originated in 1864, and a small farm was established in 1865 at Saidapet under the management of a committee. The success which attended the experiment induced the Government to take it under their direct management, and to extend its operation; hence the present Saidapet farms. These institutions have been concerned with too many tentative measures to be capable of showing a commercial success, but many important agricultural experiments have been made, and some have produced encouraging results, in indicating the general direction in which improvements can be effected in the agricultural practice of this Presidency. Attention has been given to subsoil drainage, improved tillage, the restoration of exhausted soils, economy, and the proper utilization of irrigation water; the fertilization of arable soils by the use of lime, saltpetre, oil-cake, poudrette and other manures available in Southern India, but now unused by the ryot; the introduction of new crops, suited to the climate of India and adapted for cultivation under an improving agricultural practice, such as maize, Sorghum saccharatum, Carolina paddy, Guinea grass and other grasses, New Orleans cotton and other superior varieties of cotton, tobacco of sorts, &c.; the production of live fences, in view to affording protection, shelter and fuel; the introduction of water-lifts, barn machines, carts, ploughs, cultivators, cattle-hoes, reaping knives, &c. of improved construction, and the improvement of similar kinds of machines and implements now in use in this country; improvement of the live-stock of the country by careful breeding and feeding, and by introducing and acclimatizing new breeds; with other matters.

—Agricultural education.

Between the first opening of the Experimental Farm and the end of the year 1875 several apprentices joined the institution, an apprentice meaning here a student drawing from the institution a small stipend. These apprentices were either Eurasians or Hindus, the former generally the sons of old soldiers resident at Pallavaram or St. Thomas' Mount. In establishing this class, the intention was merely to afford an opportunity to a few young men to make themselves acquainted with the routine out-of-door duties of the farmer. In 1871, in order to provide the necessary agency for carrying on the District Farms, another apprentice class was established. This second class was better paid and was established in view to training Superintendents for the District Farms. The young men of both classes came to the farm ignorant of agriculture, and as the training was entirely out-of-door and mechanical, they made but little progress towards gaining a real knowledge of this subject. As it appeared to be established that youths

trained under such a system could not be usefully employed in the districts in spreading agricultural knowledge, or in conducting agricultural operations of any complexity, it was decided in 1876 to establish a School of Agriculture at Saidapet. The work of the institution has been going on now for three years, and one class of students has recently completed their full course of instruction. A chemical laboratory has been erected, lecture and class rooms, a Veterinary Hospital, and an Agricultural Museum, &c. are contemplated. The institution is attached to the Educational Department and placed under the direct management of the Superintendent of Government Farms, who is assisted in lecturing by officers of the Madras Medical College and others. The instruction extends over three years, and embraces a thorough study of Agriculture and of such portions of Chemistry, Geology, Zoology, Botany, and the Veterinary Art as bear on the theory and practice of Agriculture, Farm Book-keeping, Land Surveying, Mensuration and Drawing. The students, before admission, must have passed the Matriculation Examination or the General Test Examination, or the Special Entrance Examination of the Institution. Candidates must be above 16 and below 24 years of age. The course is entirely free. A considerable number of Stipendiaryships and a few Scholarships have also been established, and the regulations provide for the gratuitous admission of school teachers and others to certain special courses of lectures. Those who obtain no stipendiaryship or scholarship pay their own expenses, but no fee is demanded from them. Judging from the number of applicants and the qualifications of the present students there are grounds for believing that it will amply fulfil the object for which it has been established. Some of the present students intend to settle on the Nilgiris as farmers, others similarly on the plains in the ordinary course. Some hope to get employment as agricultural teachers under the Government or under Zemindars or in Native States. The estimated annual cost of the institution is Rupees 20,000, not including the salary of the Superintendent or his Assistants.

—Public Exhibitions.

Under Native Governments and for a long time after the British took possession of the country, no expenditure appears to have been incurred on account of Cattle Shows. Public exhibitions however of cattle and useful productions of all kinds in agriculture, manufacture, minerals, and arts were held in several districts of the Presidency in 1855, 1856, 1857, and 1859, at an annual expense varying from Rupees 13,000 to Rupees 35,000. The last general agricultural exhibition was held in 1874, since when, owing to various circumstances, it has not been possible to hold any.

GOVERNMENT HORTICULTURE.

Ootacamund Botanical Gardens.

The Ootacamund Botanical Gardens were opened during the Governorship of the late Marquis of Tweeddale, and cover an area of 51·45 acres. The professed object of the gardens is—1*st*, The improvement of horticulture in this Presidency by the dissemination of information; 2*nd*, The introduction and acclimatization of vegetable productions of Europe and other parts of the world hitherto unknown in India; and 3*rd*, The distribution of good seeds and plants. In 1871 these gardens, which had hitherto formed a part of the charge of the Superintendent of the Chinchona Plantations, were placed under a separate officer, and their importance was further recognized by a more liberal allotment of funds.

Kulhutty Garden.

The Kulhutty Garden is maintained as a branch of the Ootacamund Gardens. It is adapted for the ripening of vegetable and flower seeds as it enjoys a drier and a warmer climate than that at Ootacamund.

The Burliar Garden.

The Burliar Branch Garden was purchased by Government in 1871 for the sum of Rupees 2,000. The garden is in charge of the Superintendent of the Garden at Ootacamund, and is worked out of funds provided in the budget for the latter. It is situated at an elevation of 2,500 feet above sea-level, and the extent is 8 acres. The object of its acquisition was to extend the culture of the Ipecacuanha plant which was found not to flourish at Ootacamund. The locality was believed to be specially adapted for the growth of West India plants, as well as those from the Straits and the Eastern Archipelago. The experience of the past five years has proved that the garden is well adapted for the purpose contemplated. The lease of the privilege of collecting fruit from the trees amounts to Rupees 300 per annum. Liberian coffee has been experimentally introduced here, and the trees are growing well.

Coonoor Gardens.

In the early part of 1874 the Government opened a pleasure ground at Coonoor. The plot is about 30 acres. The outlay to the 31st March 1879 has been Rupees 16,809-10-1, provided exclusively by Government. This garden, which is styled "Sim's Park," in memory of Mr. J. D. Sim, late of the Madras Civil Service, possesses a rich soil and abundance of water, and is interspersed with natural sholas. The whole now affords a very attractive appearance.

Agri-Horticultural Society.

A donation of Rupees 250 per mensem is paid to the Agri-Horticultural Society at Madras and an annual contribution of Rupees 500 is made for prizes for agricultural and other products, such as cotton, tea, cereals, forage, gums, resins, dyes, shade and avenue trees, &c.; special payments are also occasionally made.

Medicinal Garden at Ootacamund.

A medicinal garden was opened at Ootacamund in 1877, agreeably to a suggestion made by the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department. It is about 5 acres in extent, and is cultivated with medicinal plants for supply to the Medical Department. So far as it has gone the experiment has proved a success.

HORTICULTURE—CHINCHONA.

Government chinchona plantations.

The object of the Government Chinchona Plantations is the provision of an abundant and cheap supply of the febrifuge for the use of hospitals and troops in India, and the spread of Chinchona cultivation throughout the hill districts. In 1859 Her Majesty's Government engaged the services of Mr. Clement R. Markham for the special duty of introducing the Chinchonas into India. He started on an expedition to South America in the early part of 1860 and arrived in India at the end of the same year with the first instalment of Chinchona plants. These plants were in an unhealthy state when they arrived at Ootacamund. In July 1861 the experiment was entrusted to Mr. McIvor, and ever since the plantations have made satisfactory progress and proved a decided success. There are three plantations at Neddivuttum, the *Denison*, the *Kilgroston*, and the *Napier*; two at Pykara, the *Wood* and the *Hooker*; one at Ootacamund, the *Dodabetta*; and one at Mailkoondah, the *Stanley* Estate. The last-named was abandoned in 1871 with a view to ascertain whether the Chinchona could be left to nature. The experiment has proved a failure and the *Stanley* Estate is exterminated. Out of 65,000 trees estimated to have been planted, about 10,000 remain alive. The growth of these trees appears to have been checked by the rapid undergrowth of bramble and other scrub. The six working estates cover upwards of 850 acres, base measurement. The number of Chinchona plants permanently established on these plantations is 569,000 as per enumeration in 1878, of which the Officinalis and Succirubra number over a quarter of a million each. Operations of late years have been restricted in a great measure to conservancy, and the experimental cultivation of the rarer and more valuable varieties of Chinchona. The first yield of the plantations was in 1872, when the trees planted at the commencement of the enterprize were twelve years' old. The outturn was 7,294½ pounds of dry bark which realized Rupees 7,294-8-0. The prices varied from 2*s.* 3*d.* per pound to 2*s.* 10*d.*, or an average price of 2*s.* 6½*d.*, which must be considered satisfactory. A second consignment of 23,646 pounds of dry bark was made in the spring of 1873, which sold for Rupees 34,900. The average price realized was 3*s.* 2¼*d.* per pound. The third consignment

went to England in 1875. The quantity despatched was 28,659 lb. and sold for Rupees 28,659; the average price per pound was 2*s.* 1*d.* The next consignment of 63,600 lb. was remitted last January and realized Rupees 1,05,974. Three further consignments of 88,708 lb., 132,951 lb. and 103,444 lb. were shipped to England in the years 1877, 1878, and 1879 respectively, the two former realizing Rupees 3,41,272 and Rupees 3,79,789. In 1877 "Renewed" crown bark fetched the high price of 15*s.* 8*d.* per pound. In addition to the above the plantations furnished the Quinologist with 362,050 lb. of green or 111,481½ lb. dry bark, valued at 95,500 rupees. The total receipts on the estates up to 31st March 1879 aggregate Rupees 987,658. The outlay to 31st March 1879 including the cost of convict labor and interest on capital is Rupees 15,07,444. In another two or three years the whole of the capital invested by Government, together with interest thereon, will have been recouped to Government, and there will remain an annual clear profit of about three lakhs of rupees.

Quinology.

When Mr. Markham visited Ootacamund in January 1876 he suggested the appointment of a Quinologist to investigate on the spot various questions connected with the elaboration of alkaloids, the harvesting of the bark, the most economical and efficacious mode of preparing the febrifuge, &c. The services of the same officer were also to be turned to profitable account in utilizing the medicinal plants of India generally. This was carried out, and the office continued in existence to the end of 1875, when it was abolished. The Quinologist's Department has cost the State Rupees 1,28,684 made up of the following items:—Salary Rupees 77,366, plant, materials, and building Rupees 33,193, and establishment Rupees 18,125. The returns from this department have been 922 lb. of "Amorphous Quinine," manufactured out of 362,050 lb. of chinchona green bark and valued at Rupees 59,930, or at the rate of 130 shillings a pound.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

Government operations.

The development of the mineral resources of this Presidency is at present in its infancy, and there is no special Government agency. Inquiries and investigations have however been made on several occasions. The Government of India have expressed an opinion that when waste land is sold actually for cultivation no special reservation of a Government right to a share in its mineral wealth should be made, but that land known or strongly believed to contain mineral

wealth should be removed from the category of cultivable land and be granted to applicants on special agreements only. The Government have acted on this principle, and no land answering the above description has as yet been alienated at all.

Gold, general indications.

The more important districts or localities in the Madras Presidency where auriferous quartz veins occur, or where there are abandoned gold workings, or where gold mining operations are now carried on are as follows :—Devalah, Pandi River, Nelliallum, Choladi, Charambadi, Moopenard Vytheri, Karambaut, Kellakumpoya and Caracoorpoya, Eddacurra, Nellumboor, Nanjanad Valley, Sispara, Coonoor and near Wellington, Palghat Valley, Toodakull River, Arliparambur Rivulet, Arnakyem River, Carcatode Stream, Sea-beach from Parparangady to Caraloondy and thence to Beypore, Kutchambara on the bank of the Coodarapoya, Carumpoya and Poonapoya, Mijar and Karkal in South Canara, Tamrapurni, Godavari. The gold fields of the Wynad alone embrace a large area, and shallow pits and excavations made by the natives in times past, as well as the lines of races formed for conveying water for washing the auriferous soils and pounded quartz are found in numerous places. There are what appear to be native workings in the Nanjanad Valley, about four miles south-west from Ootacamund. At a height of 7,000 feet above the level of the sea near Devalah, and onwards towards Charambadi from 3,000 to 4,000 feet above the sea, large gold mining operations were evidently at one time carried on by the natives. Down the Carcoor Ghat at heights varying from 1,216 to 300 feet above the sea the quartz veins have also been worked.

—History.

It is not known at what period these and other gold mines were most productive, or whether, indeed, at any time they afforded employment to any very large number of miners. It is only certain that mining was followed to some extent at a remote period. The Malabar rajahs employed their subjects and slaves in mining, and got gold both from the soils and the reefs. As late as 1857 there were two or three hundred miners employed at Yellembullay (Parcherry Hill near Charambadi). Other natives were at the same time getting gold at Karambaut, Devalah, and elsewhere. At the close of the eighteenth century the gold mines of the Wynad and the Nilgiris first attracted the attention of the Madras Government, and they were taken up to a certain extent as a source of revenue in 1803. Systematic attempts to ascertain their value date from the year 1831. Explorations were then begun, but as efforts were mainly, if not exclusively, directed to obtaining gold from the soils, and as the modes of occurrence of gold were then virtually unknown, little scientific knowledge was acquired. Thirty more years then elapsed before any further attempts were made

officially or otherwise. Recently private persons have been induced to prospect in the vicinity of Devalah. In 1875 after machinery had been erected near the Skull reef by the Alpha Gold Mining Company, and near the Etucull reef by the Wynad Prospecting Company, for treating the auriferous quartz, the Government directed Mr. King of the Geological Survey of India to examine and report on the Wynad veins and mines. In August 1878 Mr. Brough Smyth was deputed at the instance of the Government of India to make a further and complete investigation.

—Quartz mining.

From the several reports which have been furnished it appears that there are throughout the Wynad strong and persistent veins of quartz from two to fifteen feet or more in thickness, and that they are generally more or less auriferous. The general run of the reefs is parallel, the direction of strike being usually north and south, or rather a few degrees west of north and east of south. The dip of the reefs is as a rule very low as seen at the surface, and almost invariably a dip to the east. When out-cropping on the brows of the hills, and especially when heavily developed, the dip varies from a nearly horizontal line to from 20° to 30°, and increases in lower grounds. The reefs are composed of white crystalline compact quartz, identical in every respect with the reef quartz of Russia, Australia, California, Nevada, and other gold-bearing countries. The results obtained show an average proportion of gold in all reefs of 7 dwts. per ton. The following detailed results for certain reefs may be taken as typical of those most recently obtained :—

	Average yield of gold per Ton.		
	ozs.	dwts.	grs.
Cavern Reef—			
Quartz	0	2	21·80
Pyritous quartz (proportion of pyrites, large)	4	19	3·00
Pyritous quartz	0	10	2·59
Do.	0	11	4·90
Do.	0	8	5·60
Do.	0	14	11·00
No gold visible	0	11	15·50
"Casing" small particles of gold visible	0	11	16·00
Prince of Wales' Reef—			
No. 1 Section	Button not weighable.		
„ 2 do.	0	0	1·91
„ 3 do.	0	2	4·40
Vein near Prince of Wales' Reef	0	17	11·77
Ettacul Reef—			
Pyrites	2	1	7·78
Wright's Level—			
No gold visible in the stone	0	11	6·0
Do. do.	2	16	1·6
A little gold to be seen	56	13	19·5
Gold visible in the stone	204	11	16·7
A dip near Wright's Level no gold visible	2	11	18·5
Do. below Wright's Level pyritous quartz	0	3	23·04

Skull Reef—	ozs.	dwts.	grs.
No. 1 Section	0	0	16·19
„ 2 do.	0	0	9·92
„ 3 do.	0	1	2·20
„ 4 do.	0	2	2·21
„ 5 do.	0	0	4·25

On following the run of gold indicated by the increased yield of No. 4 Section of the last mentioned reef, quartz was obtained a few yards to the northward which yielded at the rate of 1 oz. 4 dwts. 5 grs. per ton. Gold has also been obtained from the reefs and soils near Vytheri, Vellirymulla, Moopenard, Charambadi, Nedukale, towards Gudulur, near Sispara and near Eddacurra, as well as in the several veins near Devalah. Quartz with gold visible has been got from the following reefs :—Wright's Level, Reef near Prince of Wales, Cavern Reef, Dawson's Reef (Richmond), Waterfall Reef, Bear Reef, Reef on Trevelyan Estate, Rosedell Reef, Bolingbroke Reef, Reef near Nadukani, Withers' Reef (near Devalah Bazaar), Ettacul Reef, Hamlin's Reef, Reef on Phœnix Estate. From Wright's Level numerous very rich specimens have been broken out of the vein; the gold showing freely as jagged pieces, in thin leaf-like forms, and as small specks. There are more than one hundred out-crops of quartz in the southern part of South-East Wynad; the form of the surface of the country admits of these being mined by horizontal shafts; water is abundant during at least nine months in the year, and reservoirs can be constructed at a small cost; and timber for supports in the mines can be procured at or near the main auriferous reefs. The attention of capitalists in England has been drawn to the auriferous tracts of the Wynad; and if mining operations be properly conducted, suitable machinery erected, and good management with wise economy be introduced the results will be satisfactory and give rise to a new industry in Southern India. Large mines in Australia give profitable returns to investors where the yield per ton of quartz is only 2 dwts. 23 grs.

—Alluvial workings.

With regard to alluvial deposits of gold in this Presidency, it appears certain that there is at present no probability of their being worked with any profit on a large scale. A small quantity of gold is washed from stream gravels in the Godavari valley. The soils on the slopes of the Nilgiri hills where quartz veins appear at the surface are auriferous, and the natives have got a small quantity of gold from these by "ground-sluicing" and a kind of "box-sluicing." Near Needle Rock and on the Trevelyan Estate gold was got recently by sluicing; and at Seeputtee there is an ancient river-bed at one point showing a section of about 30 feet, which it is stated has yielded well. Nearly everywhere from Karambaut to near Nelakotta and from

Nadukani to Charambadi old workings with the remains of races and aqueducts are to be observed. In none of these cases however are the profits sufficient to attract European capital.

Coal. In 1870-71 the Government of India Geological Survey carried on the general mapping of the sandstone area in the eastern portion of the territory of the Nizam of Hyderabad, and southwards into this Presidency as far as Ellore in the Godavari District. On this occasion the coal-bearing rocks of the Godavari were mapped, and a series of borings for coal were taken near Dumagudem, the head-quarters of the navigation works at the first barrier of the river. The coal was found to be of an inferior quality. The sandstones of this part of the country seem to belong to the true coal-bearing rocks, but to be for the most part devoid of coal. Later, in 1874-76, a series of borings were made in a small area of coal-measures at Beddadanole in the Godavari District, where several seams of coal were struck, but in this case also the coal was remarkably inferior in quality and quite unsuited for any application. These isolated patches of coal-measures in the Godavari valley are the only ones known or likely to be found in the Madras Presidency proper; though very thin out-crops of lignite, of tertiary age, occur at Venkalay near Quilon. The Indian coal-measures are newer in age than the English carboniferous formation.

Iron. Some remarkable deposits of magnetic iron ores are found in the Salem District. The ores occur in large beds of from 50 to 100 feet in thickness, and the out-crop may be traced for miles. On one hill, six miles from Salem, there are five bands of magnetic iron from 20 to 50 feet thick. In 1825, Mr. Heath, of the Civil Service, obtained a Government advance and formed a company to establish iron works at Porto Novo near Cuddalore, at Palampatty near Salem, and at Beypore on the West Coast. At the last place the iron was to be obtained from laterite. The Porto Novo works were begun in 1833, and those at Beypore some years later. The Government gave their aid, but the experiments failed. The causes assigned were the distance of the works from the source of supply, scarcity of charcoal, and various other practical difficulties. Several companies took up the matter, but with no final success. The little information that is available regarding native working in iron will be found under the head of Manufactures. Though not of such extent or thickness, yet still of sufficient importance to be of considerable value in any further opening up of the country by rail or canal are some great veins of iron-ore in the Kurnool District, which occur in the Gunnygull and other smaller ridges near Ramallakota some 12 miles south of Kurnool. The ore is the grey micaceous or specular iron oxide and is very rich. Old workings on pits are common all over the ridges, showing that much

ore has been extracted, but only one or two furnaces appear to be worked now at intervals during the year. The great drawback to the evident richness of this iron field is the scarcity of fuel, which however might be obviated by the conservation of the jungle in the adjacent hill ranges.

Lead. Lead ore occurs in the Nullamullay range of the Cuddapah District, where it was worked very largely in ancient times; but although the indications of its extent and richness are fairly good, no continuous or systematic attempt has been made by Europeans to re-open the mines. Mr. P. W. Wall, the Mineral Viewer to Government in 1858, explored these mines, but did not report very favorably of them, though he seemed to consider the percentage of silver large. The latest assay (1879, by Mr. Mallett of the Geological Survey of India) of a small specimen, gave 78 per cent. of lead, containing silver at the rate of 22 oz. 7 dwt. to the ton.

Copper. Copper ores are met with in the Cuddapah, Kurnool, and Nellore Districts in old workings, the best indications being in the latter district, near Gunnipenta, where, some 40 years ago, they were important enough to attract European enterprise, but without any successful result. Within the last year, however, attempts are again being made by a Madras Mining Company, both in this region and in the Cuddapah District, to work these and the lead ores. The Nellore mines are considered by Mr. King, the Deputy Superintendent (for Madras) of the Geological Survey of India, not to have been adequately tried, the traces of ore being frequent and promising, while the old attempts have been carried on by incompetent men met by the usual temptations and insalubrity of the climate.

Diamonds. Diamond-tracing sandstones are of great extent in the Cuddapah and Kurnool Districts, but these have only been mined at Banaganpilli in the latter district. The ordinary workings are alluvial washings from the débris of the sandstones deposited at various points at the latter place, and again at Ramallakota near Kurnool and at Chinnur near Cuddapah. Deserted workings are common here and at other places. The Ramallakota and Banaganpilli mines and workings appear still to yield a remunerative supply of small and rough diamonds; the right to mine being sold at a yearly auction. The so-called Golconda mines either of Golapilli near Ellore, or in some parts of the Golconda range of the Eastern Ghâts north of Rajahmundry have been long deserted.

FOREST DEPARTMENT.

History of the department.

The Forest Department in this Presidency had no existence before 1847. Up to that year the forests were nominally in charge of Collectors, and no special arrangements were made for their conservancy. In 1847 the Executive Engineer of Malabar brought to the notice of Government that the forests in Malabar and Coimbatore were being denuded of timber by the Malabar merchants who supplied the Bombay market, and that some arrangements were necessary to preserve them. On this a special officer was appointed to explore, conserve, and work the Government forests in those districts, and this arrangement continued in connection with the Public Works Department for seven years. The importance of forest conservancy had then become apparent, and an officer, Dr. Cleghorn, was appointed in 1856 as Conservator of Forests of the Madras Presidency. Up to 1871-72 the head of the department was directly responsible to Government, but in 1872-73 the department was reorganized. The district officers were placed under the orders of the Collectors, the account branch was transferred to the Board, and the office of Conservator was abolished and converted into that of Inspector of Forests, with the duty of visiting them and offering advice to Collectors. This arrangement, however, was found inconvenient, and the organization was again altered in 1875, when the department was placed on a footing somewhat on the plan adopted in Bombay.

Present constitution.

The following are the rules under which the department is worked at present. The relative position of the District Forest Officers to the District Collector is analogous to that of the District Police Officers to the District Magistrate. In all local forest matters the District Forest Officer is subordinate to the Collector subject to the following restrictions. All orders of a professional character relating, for example, to felling, planting, and such operations emanate from the Conservator, but reach the District Forest Officer through the Collector. If the latter sees any reason to object to them he can do so, and differences of opinion between him and the Conservator, which cannot be otherwise settled, are referred to the Revenue Board, and if necessary to Government. The Conservator is specially responsible for the economical working of the department. The Conservator is at liberty to communicate direct with District Forest Officers for the collection and dissemination of scientific or professional knowledge. In like manner all correspondence between District Forest Officers and the Conservator, including bills for travelling allowances, periodical reports, estimates, &c., are sent through the Collector, who makes such comments as he

may deem advisable. The Collector cannot, as a rule, issue orders to District Forest Officers direct, but in the event of his deeming it necessary to order them to proceed to a particular locality, or to take special action in any forest matter, he may do so, taking care to send a copy of such order for the information of the Conservator. The Conservator is the controlling authority in all matters of promotion in the subordinate branches and in all matters of departmental discipline. The control of forest expenditure rests with the Conservator subject to the approval of the Revenue Board and Government. The Conservator has power to sanction expenditure on any one work up to Rupees 500 and the Revenue Board up to 5,000 rupees, provided that funds are available in the budget grant. An annual plan of forest operations is prepared by each District Forest Officer and forwarded through the Collector to the Conservator. The Conservator in like manner submits through the Revenue Board a sketch of proposed operations in the several forest divisions or districts for the information or orders of Government. The Conservator submits "notes" or "inspection reports" on the forests visited by him. These tour notes are transmitted to the Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, through the District Collector and Revenue Board, for any remarks or suggestions which they may have to offer. There are fifteen forest divisions in charge of Gazetted Forest Officers (Deputy and Assistant Conservators); and two in addition, viz., Palghat and Ganjam, the former in charge of the Head Assistant Collector and the latter in charge of a Forest Ranger. The divisions are as far as possible conterminous with the boundaries of revenue districts and are divided into ranges comprising one or more taluks under the immediate control of Forest Rangers, formerly called Forest Overseers. The cost of the establishment in 1856, when the department was first formally organized, was Rupees 4,530, but now, according to the revision in 1875, it costs Rupees 2,24,616, exclusive of contingencies, mileage, &c.

Object of department.

The object of the department is to prevent denudation of forests and to meet the demand now rapidly increasing throughout the country for timber and fuel. Apart from the timber supply an important consideration is the protection of the forests for climatic considerations and with a view to the permanency and regularity of the water-supply.

Classification of forests.

Forests are divided at present, as far as the application of their resources are concerned, into local forests and imperial forests. The former, which are generally close to the villages where agricultural communities live, are placed in almost every case in charge of the Collector, and when so are worked under what is called the Jungle Conservancy Fund. Particulars of this fund will be found under

Section V of this volume. It is sufficient to mention here that the local forests so worked embrace every description of conserved tree-area, from a nursery or casuarina fuel plantation up to an immemorial jungle; and that in each case the use of the forest is limited to the supply of local requirements, whether gratuitously or not as the case may be. All forests other than those called local are Imperial, are under the charge of the Conservator, and are applicable to the requirements of the State or the public at large. The forests under the Forest Department may be classed as follows:—1st, Reserved forests; 2nd, Unreserved forests; 3rd, Firewood and scrub forests; 4th, Leased forests; 5th, Sandalwood tracts. Reserved forests comprise the better class of mountain forests, such as the teak forests on the Anamallays, in the Wynad, and at Mudumallay; and also some of the better classes of other forests containing such timbers as Blackwood, Vengay, Matti, Kong and Nang in various districts, but almost always on the mountains. Almost all these forests are worked departmentally. Unreserved forests are generally good tree forest, sometimes on the mountains but often in the plains. They contain many sorts of second-class timbers with a small sprinkling of the better classes. They are almost always worked under the License and Voucher system, and are open to free felling. Firewood and scrub forests are tracts of poorer jungle not generally yielding "timber," but producing much firewood and wood for fencing purposes, for agricultural implements, &c. They are open to free felling, but firewood, &c., is also felled on paid passes and vouchers. Leased forests are quite the same as Reserved forests, only taken on lease. They are worked departmentally. Sandalwood tracts are peculiar. The sandalwood is a very small tree, and is scattered sparsely over considerable areas of second-class jungle and scrub. The product is felled departmentally, and the areas have to be well guarded against smuggling.

Methods of working.

There are two methods under which the produce of forests is turned to account. The first is that of departmental felling. In this the Forest Department fells the timber and brings it to depôt and sells it, or supplies it to Government on indent. The working arrangements differ in various divisions and depend much upon whether there is elephant labor available. In some forests gangs of axe-men are procured to fell and trim the trees, which have been first selected and marked by the Forest Officer or by responsible subordinates under his orders; the timber is then dragged by elephants out of the forests and carted to depôts and there sold departmentally. In some forests contractors are employed to fell, trim, and transport to depôt, at so much per cubic foot, any trees which may be marked and handed

over to them. In other instances trees are marked and sold outright as they stand, at so much per cubic foot by rough calculation. The second method of working forests is what is known as the voucher and license system. Under this no one is allowed to remove timber or firewood without a license, this being granted on payment of a fixed seigniorage, or free of duty when the timber or firewood is required by the people for domestic use. Under this system timber merchants or others enter the forests and fell what they require after they have paid the seigniorage and provided themselves with the license. The working of this system originally was as follows. The person requiring timber had first to go to a Tahsildar, Deputy Tahsildar, or Sub-Magistrate and pay the amount of seigniorage, which is a fixed sum on the bandy-load or head-load according to the quality of the timber and its value in the district; he was then provided with a voucher for this sum by the Revenue Department, on presenting which at the Forest Office he was supplied with a license to fell. In the license all particulars were stated, that is to say, the forest the applicant was to fell in, the time allowed, and the tannah by which the timber was to be brought out, &c. The applicant could then proceed at once to the forest. His license was however forfeited if he allowed the time to expire before the timber was brought out. These arrangements were supposed to be almost a complete check against irregularities, either on the side of the Revenue Department or of the Forest Department; the former could never grant permission to fell (which is a necessary precaution as many of the Native Revenue officials are intimately connected with the timber merchants), and the latter could not receive any money. The old plan is still in force in some Forest divisions, but in others it has been abrogated, and all Native Revenue officials are allowed to issue both voucher and license. These arrangements are under consideration. The license and voucher system has many inherent defects.

Progress made.

The area of the forests conserved by the department is not known, but it must be more than 10,000 square miles. The question of the selection of State and village forests, and their permanent settlement and reservation after demarcation and survey is now under consideration. The area of reserves and plantations for railway fuel is about 6,200 acres, estimated to yield 67,000 tons of firewood annually. The area of teak, sandalwood, &c. plantations is about 2,500 acres.

Receipts and charges.

The receipts and charges of the department have been as shown below for fifteen years down to 1874-75 :—

Years.	Receipts.	Charges.	Balance.	Years.	Receipts.	Charges.	Balance.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1860-61 ...	3,52,449	1,68,716	+ 1,83,733	1868-69 ...	3,91,179	2,69,700	+ 1,21,479
1861-62 ...	6,90,352	2,31,712	+ 4,28,640	1869-70 ...	4,95,789	2,86,691	+ 2,09,098
1862-63 ...	1,82,334	1,75,768	+ 6,566	1870-71 ...	3,39,762	2,94,860	+ 44,902
1863-64 ...	2,43,642	2,04,303	+ 39,339	1871-72 ...	4,18,882	3,45,717	+ 73,165
1864-65 ...	3,30,570	1,95,657	+ 1,34,913	1872-73 ...	4,18,767	4,78,147	— 59,380
1865-66 ...	3,21,581	2,59,802	+ 61,779	1873-74 ...	4,49,541	3,53,184	+ 96,357
1866-67 ...	3,38,607	2,17,149	+ 1,21,458	1874-75 ...	3,64,326	3,97,872	— 33,546
1867-68 ...	4,24,184	2,72,840	+ 1,51,344				

The receipts above shown do not represent the entire return for the charges incurred, nor the total possible forest revenue of the Presidency. Little or no Imperial Forest Revenue is derived from grazing fees, or "minor forest produce" as is customary in other Provinces. There are also large plantations, the trees in which have not come to maturity. No data exist for estimating the present value of these, but that at Nelambur (teak) has recently been estimated to be capable of yielding a revenue of at least Rupees 684,00,000 during the next 100 years; the charges for the same period being taken (with compound interest at 4 per cent.) at 261,00,000, a net profit of upwards of four millions sterling is left.

A new Forest Bill is under consideration by the Government, for giving the State enlarged powers of dealing with forest property. Proposed new legislation.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

The total value of the sea-borne trade of this Presidency during a recent average year exclusive of stores and treasure on account of Government amounted to Rupees 2,611,35,563, as follows:— Amount and nature of total trade.

—	—	Import.	Export.	Total.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
With foreign countries ...	Merchandise	343,60,720	646,31,072	989,91,792
	Treasure	44,33,604	55,35,971	99,69,475
	Total ...	387,94,324	701,67,043	1,089,61,367
With foreign ports in India.	Merchandise	8,21,088	22,26,562	30,47,650
	Treasure	37,140	1,97,480	2,34,620
	Total ...	8,58,228	24,24,042	32,82,270
With other Presidencies.	Merchandise	597,53,951	184,86,372	782,40,323
	Treasure	37,17,871	8,17,626	45,30,497
	Total ...	634,71,822	193,03,998	827,75,820
Interportal trade within the Presidency.	Merchandise	295,25,699	261,55,541	556,81,240
	Treasure	50,67,693	53,67,173	104,34,866
	Total ...	345,93,392	315,22,714	661,16,106
Total ...	Merchandise	1,244,61,458	1,114,99,547	2,359,61,005
	Treasure	132,56,308	119,18,250	251,74,558
	Total ...	1,377,17,766	1,234,17,797	2,611,35,563

Of the total seaborne trade of this Presidency about 41·75 per cent. is carried on with foreign countries, 1·25 per cent. with foreign ports in India, while the trade with other Presidencies amounts to about 31·75 per cent., and the interportal trade within the Presidency to about 25·25 per cent. The export trade of the Presidency consists chiefly of agricultural produce, cotton, oil or oil-seeds, grain, coffee, ginger, turmeric, dyewood, indigo, skins, &c. The imports consist mostly of piece-goods, twist, metals, liquors, &c. The export and import trade used to be mainly in the hands of European merchants, but native traders are now beginning to conduct their operations direct with Europe, without the intervention of the local houses of agency. The condition of external trade, that is, the total trade excepting that between ports within the Presidency, will be first noticed, and the latter will be described separately.

Amount of external trade.

The following statement shows the value of exports and imports in this Presidency for a recent series of twenty-one years at all ports, excluding interportal trade :—

Years.	Value of Imports.			Value of Exports.			Value of Re-exports.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1855-56	2,31,35,876	1,37,16,696	3,68,50,572	2,91,70,905	44,18,750	3,35,89,655	6,64,364
1856-57	2,35,25,244	1,70,38,582	4,05,63,826	3,67,26,978	33,33,678	4,00,60,656	7,78,134
1857-58	2,46,85,453	1,86,23,162	4,33,08,615	4,03,65,161	1,17,00,866	5,20,66,027	9,10,155
1858-59	2,93,08,408	1,42,96,207	4,36,04,615	3,37,99,807	57,28,536	3,95,28,343	17,16,376
1859-60	2,99,07,033	1,74,39,684	4,73,46,717	3,87,82,800	45,47,547	4,33,30,347	12,56,494
1860-61	2,16,55,812	2,07,25,887	5,23,81,699	4,45,98,338	62,88,632	5,08,86,970	15,07,146
1861-62	3,44,94,149	2,22,85,900	5,67,80,049	5,42,92,250	39,58,486	5,82,50,736	11,60,099
1862-63	3,03,30,148	3,03,86,890	6,07,17,038	6,35,58,990	61,90,551	6,97,49,541	11,96,496
1863-64	4,02,65,473	3,60,75,985	7,63,41,458	8,77,78,126	2,23,39,284	11,01,17,410	17,35,648
1864-65	4,18,02,487	3,03,13,958	7,21,16,445	8,36,71,790	1,81,50,942	10,18,22,732	10,04,383
1865-66	4,79,87,412	3,66,42,492	8,46,29,904	9,00,15,155	1,26,10,223	10,26,25,378	14,61,719
1866-67	4,16,74,201	1,36,86,606	5,53,60,807	4,45,86,571	1,75,29,881	6,21,16,452	4,86,237
1867-68	5,08,27,573	1,12,93,529	6,21,21,102	5,80,09,230	1,01,55,634	6,81,64,864	4,39,318
1868-69	5,14,00,610	2,25,60,091	7,39,60,701	7,67,50,999	36,81,960	8,04,32,959	14,45,965
1869-70	5,11,84,481	1,76,42,023	6,88,26,504	7,32,45,315	62,22,657	7,94,67,972	18,65,985
1870-71	5,49,93,170	82,68,321	6,32,61,491	6,24,26,649	1,72,12,961	7,96,39,610	26,75,979
1871-72	5,04,11,411	1,04,92,486	6,09,03,897	8,79,57,788	68,99,824	9,48,57,612	21,72,662
1872-73	5,29,04,294	1,19,42,830	6,48,47,124	7,92,95,348	69,92,958	8,62,88,306	20,81,746
1873-74	5,46,45,249	84,69,288	6,31,14,537	8,26,86,748	1,84,09,184	10,10,95,932	25,58,661
1874-75	5,65,69,225	96,01,625	6,61,70,850	8,40,14,342	97,59,965	9,37,74,307	28,04,065
1875-76* ...	6,42,27,053	95,62,079	7,37,89,132	8,88,33,445	43,71,537	9,32,04,082	16,74,217
	1,72,59,681	24,09,141	1,96,68,822	1,18,37,969	29,91,753	1,48,29,722	45,34,303

Exports and imports under external trade compared.

The following statement shows the total exports and imports inclusive of Government stores and treasure from and to this Presidency but exclusive of interportal trade within the Presidency, during twenty-two recent years and the excess or deficiency of the former as compared with the latter. As there is a large traffic by railway and by land with other Presidencies and Native States (for which no statistics are available), the excess does not represent the absolute balance of trade against the Presidency :—

* Upper figures are exclusive of British ports within the Presidency. Lower figures are those of British ports within the Presidency.

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Excess or Deficiency of Exports or Imports as compared with
1855-56	34,254,019	36,850,572	— 2,596,553
1856-57	40,838,790	40,563,826	+ 274,964
1857-58	52,976,182	43,308,615	+ 9,667,567
1858-59	41,244,719	43,604,615	— 2,359,896
1859-60	44,586,841	47,346,717	— 2,759,876
1860-61	52,394,116	52,381,699	+ 12,417
1861-62	59,410,835	56,780,049	+ 2,630,786
1862-63	70,946,037	60,717,038	+ 10,228,999
1863-64	111,853,058	76,341,458	+ 31,511,600
1864-65	102,827,115	72,116,445	+ 30,710,670
1865-66	104,087,097	84,629,904	+ 19,457,193
1866-67	62,602,689	55,360,807	+ 7,241,882
1867-68	68,604,182	62,121,102	+ 6,483,080
1868-69	81,878,924	73,960,701	+ 7,918,223
1869-70	81,333,957	68,826,504	+ 12,507,453
1870-71	82,315,589	63,261,491	+ 19,054,098
1871-72	97.080,374	60,904,976	+ 36,125,398
1872-73	88,370,152	64,848,854	+ 23,521,298
1873-74	103,654,593	63,116,409	+ 40,538,184
1874-75	96.578,372	66,172,350	+ 30,406,022
1875-76	94,879,199	73,789,132	+ 21,090,067
1876-77	95,282,293	112,067,618	— 16,785,325

Comparison of different articles ditto.

The following statement showing the detailed imports and exports for a recent average year is useful as indicating the proportion existing between their value :—

Imports.	1875-76, exclusive of British Ports within the Presidency.	Exports.	1875-76, exclusive of British Ports within the Presidency.
	Rs.		Rs.
Twist	1,23,88,399	Coffee	1,66,11,109
Cotton piece-goods, grey ...	94,51,950	Cotton wool	1,65,28,491
Metals	49,96,807	Hides and skins	1,08,15,853
Cotton piece-goods not otherwise described	48,66,561	Rice	89,00,886
Railway stores	45,95,289	Seeds	58,66,899
Paddy	20,19,554	Indigo	47,31,631
Millinery and wearing apparel...	18,10,154	Spices	40,52,130
Rice	15,53,748	Oils	34,42,041
Timber and wood	15,17.622	Cotton goods	27,80,400
Silk, raw	14,10,365	Provisions and oilman's stores ...	23,80,652
Spices, including betel-nuts ...	13,05,505	Sugar and other saccharine matter	19,40,827
Spirits	10,24,528	Coir, yarn, and rope	18,90,966
Wine	8,35,741	Cocoanuts	11,44,592
Grain of sorts	8,21,533	Timber and wood	10,45,109
Provisions and oilman's stores...	7,39,146	Tobacco	7,32,343
Drugs and medicines	6,04,525	Paddy	6,84,876
Malt liquors	5,02,455	Dyes of sorts	5,81,326
Paper	4,16,944	Grain of sorts	3,85,929
Wool, manufactures of	3,93,147	Salt	3,68,583
Seeds	2,84,125	Drugs	3,12,593
Glass and manufactures of ...	2,75,639	Horns	2,25,914
Silk, manufactures of	2,35,698	Fruits and vegetables	1,61,080
Machines and machinery ...	2,14,780	Wax	1,43,094
Tea	2,14,197	Silk and manufactures of ...	1,37,909
Coral, unwrought	1,76,909	Saltpetre	84,829
Wheat	1,76,623	Hemp and manufactures of ...	66,349
Books	1,73,498	Mats	57,141
Stationery except paper ...	1,41,369	Wheat	36,292
Earthenware and porcelain ...	1,19,635	Jewellery	34,440
Dyeing and coloring materials...	1,01,068	Feathers	27,087
Jewellery	70,350	Spirits	17,790
Other articles	1,07,89,189	Ivory and ivoryware	11,908
		Precious stones	5,969
		Other articles	26,26,407
Total ...	6,42,27,053		
£ ..	6,422,705	Total ...	8,88,33,445
Include Government Stores ...	34,20,467	£ ...	8,883,344
and Government Salt on the West Coast	8,76,961	Include Government Stores ...	890

Export articles under external trade.

Of the total exports under external trade about 76·3 per cent. goes to foreign countries, about 2·6 per cent. to foreign ports in India, and about 21·1 per cent. to ports in other Presidencies. The articles of export consist chiefly of unmanufactured goods being the products of the country. The only articles at present liable to duty on export to foreign places are rice, paddy, and indigo, all the rest are free. No duty is charged on exports to British ports within India. The following list shows the detailed exports for a recent average year 1875-76 :—

—		Quantity.	Value.
			RS.
Coffee	lb.	42,691,712	166,11,109
Cotton, raw	,,	82,143,068	165,28,491
Rice	Cwts.	2,448,794	89,00,886
Paddy	,,	289,999	6,84,876
Grain, other kinds	,,	136,908	4,22,221
Indigo	lb.	2,554,832	47,31,631
Seeds	Cwts.	1,360,507	58,66,899
Oils	Gls.	3,126,232	34,42,041
Spices	lb.	30,468,666	40,52,130
Coir yarn and rope	Cwts.	253,172	18,90,966
Sugar and other saccharine matter ...	,,	397,764	19,40,327
Cocoanuts	No.	47,453,647	11,44,592
Tobacco	lb.	4,530,905	7,32,343
Tea	,,	120,924	1,46,272
Hides and skins	No.	9,909,816	108,15,853
Cotton piece-goods	Yds.	7,540,114 Pieces 25,148 No. 409,050	27,72,173
Timber and wood	Val.	...	10,45,109
Animals, living	No.	102,785	7,92,747
All other articles	Val.	...	63,11,389
Total Merchandise ...		...	888,32,555
Value of re-exports		...	15,56,455
Total ...		...	904,89,010

—Coffee.

The cultivation of coffee is comparatively of recent origin, but it has developed with such rapidity that it now occupies the first place among the articles of export. In 1855-56 the exports amounted to about 8½ millions of pounds, and with the exception of 1857-58 they steadily increased to nearly 14½ millions of pounds by 1859-60, and when in 1859 the export duty of 3 per cent. which had previously been levied was abolished, the export rose in 1860-61 to about 18½ millions of pounds. From this point the trade increased with still greater rapidity till in the year 1865-66 it amounted to upwards of 34 millions of pounds. Owing probably to the re-imposition of the 3 per cent. duty, which however only continued in force for three months, the exports in 1866-67 (which consisted of eleven months only) fell to 17 millions of pounds. In the following year, however, they again rose to 35½ millions of pounds, and in 1868-69 to 47 millions. In the next two years there was a decline, but in 1871-72 the trade suddenly revived, nearly 57 millions of pounds were exported. During the five years ending 1877 they have averaged 40 millions of pounds, the highest figure reached being that in 1875-76, viz., 42½ millions of pounds. The value of coffee has also steadily increased, and this has given an impetus to the cultivation. In 1855-56 the price as deduced from the

declared value was Rupees 11¼ per cwt., while in 1871-72, in which year the largest quantity was exported, the average price was Rupees 27¼ a cwt.; it has since nearly doubled the average for 1876-77, being Rupees 44⅓. Coffee cultivation in Southern India is carried on principally in the Wynad, on the Nilgiris, in Mysore, Coorg and Travancore, and latterly to some extent on the slopes of the Western Ghâts in Tinnevelly. A considerable portion of the exports of the Madras Presidency consist of coffee from Coorg and Mysore. Coffee is principally exported from the ports of Malabar, from Tuticorin and from Madras. The following is a table for a series of years:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
1855-56	8,601,464	8,92,167
1856-57	8,869,609	9,44,446
1857-58	7,714,355	8,67,041
1858-59	11,372,338	12,30,803
1859-60	14,578,228	18,75,054
1860-61	18,571,414	32,41,699
1861-62	20,960,198	47,10,369
1862-63	20,269,004	53,55,581
1863-64	27,333,127	65,55,671
1864-65	31,424,319	76,84,938
1865-66	34,527,695	78,13,813
1866-67	17,374,766	41,91,785
1867-68	35,659,638	80,58,373
1868-69	47,411,508	107,65,221
1869-70	37,353,359	88,21,118
1870-71	35,484,209	82,84,862
1871-72	56,889,888	138,34,164
1872-73	41,548,950	112,76,512
1873-74	41,479,712	151,94,418
1874-75	36,652,965	136,13,647
1875-76	42,691,712	166,11,109
1876-77	36,165,920	143,32,608

The following are the countries to which coffee was exported in 1875-76:—

Countries to which exported.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Trade.	LB.	RS.
United Kingdom	19,007,408	81,45,489
France	13,618,752	48,23,959
Austria	4,076,688	15,41,955
Turkey in Asia	1,215,424	4,35,176
Portugal	...	...
Persia	379,904	1,35,530
Ceylon	453,264	1,51,755
Italy	548,576	2,00,944
Arabia	154,560	53,042
Other countries	595,952	2,32,758
Total	40,050,528	157,20,608
To foreign ports in India	41,328	13,405
Interprovincial Trade.		
Bombay	2,369,024	7,90,976
Bengal	190,848	69,447
British Burmah	31,024	13,478
Scinde	8,960	3,195
Total	2,599,856	8,77,096
Grand Total	42,691,712	166,11,109

—Cotton Raw.

The value of the trade in raw cotton twenty-four years ago was 25 lakhs of rupees, since which time it has increased, though with considerable fluctuations, to nearly six times that sum, the average of the five years ending 1877 being 137 lakhs. During the interval between 1855-56 and 1860-61 the price of cotton ranged between two and two and a half annas per pound. In 1861-62 it was a little over three annas, the quantity exported being $8\frac{3}{4}$ millions of pounds and the declared value upwards of 170 lakhs. In 1862-63 the quantity exported fell by nearly 28 per cent. owing to the transfer of North Canara and with it the trade of the important cotton-exporting port of Campta to the Bombay Presidency; but, in consequence of the American war and the unprecedented demand for Indian cotton in the English market which arose thereupon, the price nearly doubled, and the value of the exports rose by upwards of 40 per cent. The price of cotton and together with it the value of exports were steadily maintained in the years 1863-64, 1864-65, and 1865-66 during the continuance of the American war, and in the last-named year the exports reached 120 millions of pounds, the highest figure recorded for this Presidency. With the cessation of the American war, and as a consequence of the excessive demand for Indian cotton in the Manchester market, the exports fell at once in 1866-67 (eleven months) to less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions of pounds. In 1867-68 the exports nearly doubled, and in 1868-69 quadrupled. Since then they have been fluctuating between 4 or 8 millions of pounds in quantity and 100 and 200 lakhs of rupees in value. The principal cotton-producing districts are Bellary, Tinnevelly, Kistna, Kurnool, Coimbatore, Madura, and Cuddapah. On the whole, the area of cultivation ranges between $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions of acres in this Presidency. It can be increased to any extent, but at present there is not much inducement for extension, as the cotton produced is of inferior quality and cannot compete with American cotton or even Egyptian cotton in Europe. A very large portion of the cotton produced is consumed in the country, and there are large exports to Mysore and Bombay. The principal ports from which cotton is exported are Fort St. George, Tuticorin, and Cocanada. The quantity and value of exports of cotton wool during the last twenty-two recent years have been as below:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
1855-56	21,013,464	25,21,351
1856-57	53,988,065	72,22,286
1857-58	55,015,309	87,71,724
1858-59	38,652,542	61,17,902
1859-60	62,512,527	95,97,135
1860-61	78,822,027	112,91,211
1861-62	87,544,471	170,40,215
1862-63	62,374,133	238,12,882
1863-64	72,490,886	447,18,112

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
1864-65	73,101,578	404,18,937
1865-66	120,034,215	484,16,348
1866-67	24,367,350	94,37,365
1867-68	49,286,131	123,65,500
1868-69	94,030,728	213,99,830
1869-70	68,513,748	191,25,050
1870-71	42,347,132	106,04,132
1871-72	75,329,127	172,05,095
1872-73	67,905,380	158,76,737
1873-74	61,522,169	128,33,988
1874-75	80,388,584	162,68,783
1875-76	82,143,068	165,28,491
1876-77	53,879,952	107,40,374

The subjoined statement shows the quantity and value of this article exported to the several countries during the year 1875-76: —

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	LB.	RS.
United Kingdom	55,390,832	112,25,850
France	7,946,064	15,09,187
China	4,601,856	9,07,023
Italy	5,385,184	10,44,763
Austria	3,022,992	6,26,291
Holland	1,950,032	4,17,900
Ceylon	224,000	45,205
Total ...	78,520,960	157,76,219
Indian ports not British ...	54,880	10,380
Interprovincial Trade.		
Bengal	3,082,016	6,18,739
Bombay	485,212	1,23,153
Total ...	3,567,228	7,41,892
Grand Total ...	82,143,068	165,28,491

—Rice and paddy.

The value of exports of rice and paddy, the staple grains of this Presidency, for twenty-two recent years are shown below. The exports have fluctuated considerably, being dependent mainly on the character of the season, and represent but a small proportion of the produce of the country. The exports average 74 lakhs of rupees. In 1873-74 they reached nearly 132 lakhs owing to extensive exportations to Bengal on account of the famine. With the mitigation of famine in 1874-75 the exports fell to 115 lakhs and in 1875-76 to about 96 lakhs. The extensive failure of crops and the consequent famine in this Presidency in 1876-77 has, as might be expected, given a still greater check to exports, which have fallen off by nearly one-third :—

Years.	Rice.		Paddy.		Total Value, Paddy and Rice.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
	CWTS.	RS.	CWTS.	RS.	RS.
1855-56	2,687,330	54,94,631	223,813	2,54,412	57,49,043
1856-57	2,415,996	51,22,096	291,250	3,65,066	54,87,162
1857-58	2,650,183	57,74,071	289,629	3,76,077	61,50,148
1858-59	1,859,214	43,92,164	221,938	4,29,516	48,21,680
1859-60	2,154,071	51,93,783	272,473	4,29,804	56,23,587
1860-61	2,752,482	61,80,741	210,871	3,58,458	65,39,199
1861-62	1,523,585	45,88,390	214,071	3,96,429	49,84,819
1862-63	1,280,812	44,85,438	215,938	4,17,746	49,03,184
1863-64	1,515,906	58,75,295	300,978	6,00,353	64,75,648
1864-65	1,445,987	60,61,255	297,174	8,57,101	69,18,356
1865-66	1,443,420	65,88,482	282,241	6,97,629	72,86,111
1866-67	1,509,829	83,78,954	240,900	6,48,733	90,27,687
1867-68	1,733,464	69,67,153	271,137	6,48,069	76,15,222
1868-69	1,762,382	69,11,085	312,714	7,76,387	76,87,472
1869-70	1,478,059	59,19,137	247,078	6,07,505	65,26,642
1870-71	2,048,674	74,18,394	276,162	5,50,704	79,69,098
1871-72	2,387,097	85,46,649	313,707	6,02,366	91,49,015
1872-73	2,110,384	8,59,319	291,041	5,93,634	86,52,953
1873-74	3,490,663	124,74,595	350,027	7,17,568	131,92,163
1874-75	3,042,118	108,71,512	269,758	6,53,938	115,25,450
1875-76	2,448,794	89,00,886	289,999	6,84,876	95,85,762
1876-77	1,533,165	61,74,339	226,073	5,38,350	67,12,689

The following comparative table shows the countries to which rice and paddy were exported in the year 1875-76. The principal countries to which rice is exported are Ceylon, the United Kingdom, and Mauritius :—

Countries.	1875-76.				Value, Paddy and Rice.
	Paddy.		Rice.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Foreign Countries.	CWTS.	RS.	CWTS.	RS.	RS.
Ceylon	236,279	5,51,697	1,838,705	70,92,888	76,44,585
United Kingdom	2	9	297,759	7,75,194	7,75,203
Mauritius	10,982	27,187	76,213	2,04,520	2,31,707
Bourbon	...	...	53,437	1,44,677	1,44,677
France	366	906	11,714	28,527	29,433
West Indies	9,079	24,800	22,331	61,003	85,803
Arabia	...	...	10,154	43,455	43,455
Other countries	2,132	5,824	15,246	66,317	72,141
Total ...	258,840	6,10,423	2,325,559	84,16,581	90,27,004
Foreign ports in India	29,156	69,159	77,193	3,06,058	3,75,217
To other Presidencies.					
Bombay	2,003	5,294	43,088	1,67,199	1,72,493
British Burmah	...	...	2,718	10,176	10,176
Bengal	...	...	236	872	872
Scinde	...	...	...	...	...
Total	2,003	5,294	46,042	1,78,247	183,541
Grand Total ...	289,999	6,84,876	2,448,794	89,00,886	95,85,762

The export trade during twenty-two recent years in what are denominated other grains exhibits very great fluctuations as will be seen from the figures given below :— —Other grains.

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	CWTS.	RS.
1855-56	103,424	2,52,190
1856-57	201,357	5,03,943
1857-58	279,045	7,25,753
1858-59	348,804	9,62,319
1859-60	306,062	8,42,802
1860-61	467,937	13,35,341
1861-62	370,576	10,39,294
1862-63	175,518	5,62,129
1863-64	155,250	5,32,615
1864-65	220,549	8,29,315
1865-66	129,286	5,43,057
1866-67	88,562	4,22,062
1867-68	Not available.	3,54,394
1868-69	46,982	1,66,514
1869-70	200,151	7,80,977
1870-71	Not available.	2,75,732
1871-72	Do.	3,65,541
1872-73	Do.	4,26,555
1873-74	Do.	3,12,502
1874-75	Do.	5,36,699
1875-76	136,908	4,22,221
1876-77	158,704	5,39,298

The export duties on these grains were abolished by the Tariff Act of 1875. The principal articles under this head are grain and other pulses. In the subjoined statement are given the countries to which grain other than rice was exported in 1875-76 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign.	CWTS.	RS.
Ceylon	58,038	2,05,790
Mauritius	46,735	1,26,243
Bourbon	21,636	61,572
Straits Settlements	287	1,171
Other countries	2	11
Total ...	126,698	3,94,787
Foreign ports in India	3,807	9,128
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	2,046	11,744
British Burmah	876	2,383
Bengal	3,452	4,059
Scinde	29	120
Total ...	6,403	18,306
Grand Total ...	136,908	4,22,221

The trade in indigo is liable to very great fluctuations, being mainly dependent on the quality of the produce, which is materially affected by the nature of the season. The exports for twenty-two recent years are shown below :— —Indigo.

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
1855-56	2,899,627	43,14,286
1856-57	2,846,838	47,24,631
1857-58	2,088,682	38,59,826
1858-59	1,984,773	35,78,679
1859-60	2,531,726	45,55,258
1860-61	1,589,612	28,11,882
1861-62	2,328,636	48,60,090
1862-63	2,433,168	51,67,790
1863-64	2,023,784	40,37,259
1864-65	1,530,508	33,35,915
1865-66	1,601,240	34,57,070
1866-67*	658,336	14,21,717
1867-68	2,251,088	41,33,587
1868-69	2,663,920	61,03,555
1869-70	3,076,304	75,47,745
1870-71	3,883,572	85,31,008
1871-72	5,204,612	120,82,388
1872-73	2,985,206	69,31,400
1873-74	4,248,524	88,28,959
1874-75	2,791,852	57,15,508
1875-76	2,554,832	47,31,631
1876-77	3,127,432	56,07,120

Indigo cultivation is chiefly carried on in Cuddapah, South Arcot, Nellore, Kistna, and Kurnool Districts, and the bulk of the exports are from Fort St. George. The following statement shows the places to which this description of produce is exported :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign.		RS.
United Kingdom	2,346,512	43,35,863
Egypt	1,120	2,158
France	88,592	1,67,357
Malta	12,432	24,251
Persia	25,312	49,824
Turkey in Asia	19,152	37,902
Italy	13,608	30,660
United States	19,624	39,590
Other countries	56	30
Total ...	2,526,608	46,87,635
Indian ports not British	2,912	5,123
Interprovincial Trade.		
Bengal	13,104	23,126
Bombay	12,208	15,717
British Burmah	...	30
Total ...	25,312	38,873
Grand Total ...	2,554,832	47,31,631

—Seeds. The progress of trade under seeds is shown below. Gingelly seed, from which oil is extracted, constitutes the bulk of the trade :—

* Eleven months.

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	CWTS.	RS.
1855-56	612,598	16,77,941
1856-57	707,906	23,85,986
1857-58	1,238,853	29,59,560
1858-59	624,710	25,56,507
1859-60	356,272	14,81,558
1860-61	520,866	22,76,749
1861-62	668,772	27,91,666
1862-63	893,920	37,43,963
1863-64	627,312	26,64,306
1864-65	722,688	27,57,548
1865-66	592,281	22,68,837
1866-67*	104,712	4,88,966
1867-68	639,261	34,33,046
1868-69	1,066,796	50,66,706
1869-70	860,120	50,38,699
1870-71	...	49,36,500
1871-72	...	57,88,709
1872-73	...	39,98,400
1873-74	...	50,08,760
1874-75	...	53,87,173
1875-76	1,360,506	58,66,899
1876-77	904,791	49,06,113

The trade has, on the whole, increased in value since 1855 from nearly 17 lakhs of rupees to nearly 50 lakhs, but the quantities exhibit considerable fluctuations. Up to the passing of Act XVI of 1875 an export duty of 3 per cent. was levied on produce of this description, and its abolition led to a considerable increase in the exports in 1875-76. The following table shows the countries to which seeds were exported in 1875-76. France, the United Kingdom, and Bengal are the principal marts :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign.	CWTS.	RS.
France	673,975	34,07,723
United Kingdom	151,144	5,71,766
Mauritius	2,291	8,481
Ceylon	26,581	1,16,712
Straits Settlements	5,336	25,836
Italy	22,737	1,02,315
Other countries	879	3,845
Total ...	882,943	42,36,678
Foreign ports in India	3,463	13,275
Interprovincial.		
Bengal	461,848	15,54,094
Burmah	11,316	53,357
Bombay	936	9,495
Total ...	474,100	16,16,946
Grand Total ...	1,360,506	58,66,899

* Eleven months.

—Oils.

The value of the exports of oils, animal and vegetable, has risen in the same twenty-two years from 6 lakhs to nearly 40 lakhs of rupees :—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	GLS. & LB.	RS.
1855-56	2,351,668	6,27,448
1856-57	2,536,020	7,00,088
1857-58	1,646,380	8,92,336
1858-59	2,670,795	6,68,900
1859-60	2,425,956	6,50,569
1860-61	2,474,522	16,09,321
1861-62	1,805,686	16,43,565
1862-63	2,816,878	27,28,997
1863-64	3,848,012	37,12,220
1864-65	2,796,537	25,26,920
1865-66	1,590,610	15,43,272
1866-67*	1,079,414 27,913 lb.	11,90,730
1867-68	1,755,492 24,123 „	24,16,936
1868-69	2,658,703 28,400 „	40,57,668
1869-70	2,796,421 28,696 „	40,00,624
1870-71	1,918,422 24,322 „	27,58,376
1871-72	4,193,712 23,497 „	55,84,816
1872-73	4,016,896 28,657 „	54,75,569
1873-74	2,328,772 30,521 „	32,36,786
1874-75	2,755,533 38,482 „	32,96,080
1875-76	3,126,232	34,42,041
1876-77	3,930,191	39,27,358

The foreign exports consist chiefly of animal and cocoanut oils; to "other Presidencies" cocoanut, gingelly, and essential oils are exported. The following table shows the countries to which oils were exported during the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	GLS.	RS.
United Kingdom	869,510	11,29,404
France	175,933	2,15,433
Austria	66,714	77,341
Italy	1	1
Other countries	95,548	1,02,810
Total ...	1,207,706	15,24,989
Foreign ports in India	53,195	51,452
Interprovincial Trade.		
Bombay	1,181,248	12,61,595
British Burmah	531,851	4,46,341
Bengal	149,104	1,54,590
Scinde	3,128	3,074
Total ...	1,865,331	18,65,600
Grand Total ...	3,126,232	34,42,041

* Eleven months.

The export trade in spices during the same twenty-two years was as follows:— —Spices.

Years.	Quantity in lb. and No.		Value.
	LB.	NO.	RS.
1855-56	28,994,451	2,457,200	24,17,287
1856-57	20,695,303	7,703,000	19,42,113
1857-58	25,280,360	7,516,250	23,53,893
1858-59	23,432,489	3,362,900	19,61,085
1859-60	37,883,292	8,478,100	21,82,860
1860-61	26,676,997	,,	29,14,563
1861-62	28,515,386	,,	32,58,522
1862-63	22,837,953	,,	22,39,341
1863-64	21,914,102	,,	24,05,713
1864-65	22,114,172	,,	25,87,936
1865-66	23,548,552	,,	26,23,295
1866-67	4,553,803	4,237,162	21,49,305
1867-68	22,948,576	,,	26,11,877
1868-69	25,131,456	10,152,400	27,92,238
1869-70	22,506,288	7,754,250	24,96,042
1870-71	24,484,880	10,293,100	26,05,322
1871-72	34,042,400	11,546,550	35,12,369
1872-73	32,639,740	20,956,450	29,64,159
1873-74	25,134,732	16,501,950	26,51,172
1874-75	27,773,200	12,372,620	34,47,696
1875-76	30,468,666	,,	40,52,130
1876-77	26,621,069	,,	37,12,514

Spices are exported chiefly from Malabar and to some extent from South Canara. The heavy duty levied on pepper in France is stated to be repressive of trade in this article and an incentive to smuggling across the Italian frontier. The countries to which this commodity was exported in the year 1875-76 were as follow:—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
United Kingdom	2,301,580	5,46,174
Ceylon	2,727,793	2,01,032
France	3,345,567	5,02,763
Arabia	341,029	49,022
Straits Settlements	28,346	2,349
Mauritius	513,488	41,038
Other countries	1,245,506	1,87,384
Total	10,503,309	15,29,762
Indian ports not British	2,914,048	2,29,958
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	14,208,505	19,71,818
Bengal	2,633,593	2,90,520
British Burmah	35,391	3,510
Scinde	173,820	26,562
Total	17,051,309	22,92,410
Grand Total	30,468,666	40,52,130

The exports in coir yarn and rope to all countries, except Ceylon and the Straits Settlements, exhibit an increase:— —Coir yarn and rope.

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	CWTS.	RS.
1855-56	124,522	2,72,111
1856-57	140,934	2,97,422
1857-58	149,349	3,14,646
1858-59	105,661	3,11,587
1859-60	166,259	3,40,853
1860-61	178,895	6,09,511
1861-62	175,730	9,27,477
1862-63	179,176	10,70,372
1863-64	210,672	11,25,399
1864-65	178,587	9,50,206
1865-66	127,907	12,27,560
1866-67	181,586	10,36,276
1867-68	188,369	12,58,305
1868-69	252,945	17,46,781
1869-70	252,919	17,90,888
1870-71	184,935	13,13,307
1871-72	196,998	14,36,184
1872-73	244,698	18,08,643
1873-74	238,833	18,84,384
1874-75	265,205	20,04,854
1875-76	253,172	18,90,966
1876-77	290,816	25,92,012

The exports of this article have been steadily increasing. They have risen from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 lakhs of cwts. in quantity and from $2\frac{3}{4}$ to 26 lakhs of rupees in value since 1855. Coir is principally exported from Malabar. The destination of these exports in 1875-76 is shown below. The trade in coir is chiefly with the United Kingdom and Bombay :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.		RS.
United Kingdom	71,167	6,63,738
Ceylon	4,586	37,162
France	2,506	22,745
Arabia	2,176	12,588
Other countries	5,870	51,897
Total ...	86,305	7,88,130
Foreign ports in India	22,397	1,35,920
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	128,314	8,64,727
Bengal	7,579	60,413
British Burmah	7,487	35,181
Scinde	1,090	6,595
Total ...	144,470	9,66,916
Grand Total ...	253,172	18,90,966

—Sugar. The following are the figures for sugar :—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	CWTS.	RS.
1855-56	495,927	31,52,096
1856-57	540,210	38,36,680
1857-58	451,173	40,86,246
1858-59	345,101	26,84,944
1859-60	423,445	30,52,694
1860-61	399,314	29,53,686
1861-62	320,199	24,97,673
1862-63	259,740	22,65,928
1863-64	412,521	33,45,609

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	CWT.	RS.
1864-65	379,924	31,73,315
1865-66	419,630	27,45,976
1866-67*	284,857	18,58,302
1867-68	124,987	9,02,468
1868-69	231,933	14,41,048
1869-70	241,220	16,64,903
1870-71	199,901	13,74,514
1871-72	333,888	20,10,438
1872-73	472,512	30,24,485
1873-74	223,375	11,72,886
1874-75	459,617	25,01,415
1875-76	397,764	19,40,827
1876-77	489,742	24,51,329

The exports of sugar do not on the whole show much advance, but rather the reverse. The 3 per cent. duty on sugar exports to foreign countries was removed in 1859; but the trade has notwithstanding been declining with however considerable fluctuations. The prices have been gradually falling during the last few years. It is a matter of complaint among the merchants that for the protection of French trade drawbacks are granted on sugar refined in that country which from the manner in which the system is worked virtually amount to payment of a bounty to the sugar-refiner and enable him to undersell the Indian sugars and beat the English refiners out of the market. Sugar is principally exported from the Northern Districts and Fort St. George. The following statement shows the countries to which the article was exported in the year 1875-76 :—

Countries to which exported.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	CWTS.	RS.
United Kingdom	280,456	12,94,511
Ceylon	10,506	45,438
Arabia	2,961	21,143
Other countries	15,710	54,998
Total ...	309,633	14,16,090
Foreign ports in India	38,612	1,76,675
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	40,464	2,69,211
Bengal	7,061	65,424
British Burmah	316	2,179
Scinde	1,678	11,248
Total ...	49,519	3,48,062
Grand Total ...	397,764	19,40,827

* Eleven months.

—Cocoanut shells and kernels.

The progress of trade in cocoanut-shells and kernels is shown below. Under quantities the numbers have reference to cocoanuts and weight to kernels:—

Years.	Denomination.	Quantities.	Value.
			Rs.
1855-56	No.	24,667,877	3,24,854
	Cwts.	112,805	4,42,988
1856-57	No.	34,803,913	4,61,961
	Cwts.	110,814	4,36,772
1857-58	No.	26,716,572	3,52,930
	Cwts.	400,266	3,97,868
1858-59	No.	27,342,940	3,60,740
	Cwts.	109,053	4,32,972
1859-60	No.	39,308,406	5,16,269
	Cwts.	157,691	6,24,800
1860-61	No.	31,478,767	5,66,425
	Cwts.	213,441	13,25,194
1861-62	No.	26,807,950	6,70,734
	Cwts.	267,604	23,24,297
*1862-63	No.	35,140,878	8,78,435
	Cwts.	308,660	27,08,402
1863-64	No.	41,630,844	10,39,976
	Cwts.	308,778	24,50,443
1864-65	No.	41,553,541	10,39,332
	Cwts.	310,784	25,57,540
1865-66	No.	22,128,821	6,03,234
	Cwts.	149,229	15,39,915
1866-67*	No.	6,936,369	7,19,032
	Cwts.	135,552	17,57,672
1867-68	No.	Not available.	14,17,099
	Cwts.		17,42,548
1868-69	No.	49,917,939	12,53,812
	Cwts.	215,157	21,74,195
1869-70	No.	42,669,692	12,04,654
	Cwts.	189,729	20,10,328
1870-71	No.	34,503,948	9,66,821
	Cwts.	116,228	12,51,341
1871-72	No.	65,502,403	16,30,861
	Cwts.	248,955	21,72,223
1872-73	No.	49,838,241	10,25,302
	Cwts.	269,174	19,60,932
1873-74	No.	45,617,578	10,46,535
	Cwts.	183,045	16,72,015
1874-75	No.	59,794,983	13,20,296
	Cwts.	222,252	19,27,309
1875-76	No.	47,453,647	11,44,592
1876-77	No.	56,015,708	13,62,865

The following are the countries to which cocoanuts were exported in 1875-76:—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
	No.	Rs.
Foreign countries	149,230	3,572
Foreign ports in India	4,771,035	1,25,987
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	41,394,484	9,92,664
Scinde	309,310	7,768
British Burmah	577,800	10,124
Bengal	251,788	4,477
Total	42,533,382	10,15,033
Grand Total	47,453,647	11,44,592

* Eleven months.

The progress of the export trade in tobacco is shown below :— —Tobacco.

Years.	Denominations.	Quantities.	Value.
			Rs.
1855-56	No.	10,244,804	2,16,721
	Lb.	2,466,634	
	Packages	222	
1856-57	No.	6,941,100	2,02,345
	Lb.	1,897,542	
1857-58	No.	10,181,651	2,59,342
	Lb.	3,071,746	
1858-59	No.	10,361,250	2,57,998
	Lb.	2,935,435	
	Bottles	50	
1859-60	No.	11,785,184	1,73,062
	Lb.	1,882,267	
1860-61	,,	1,969,228	1,49,350
1861-62	,,	1,905,738	1,48,823
1862-63	,,	4,687,581	2,31,459
1863-64	,,	2,929,200	3,40,143
1864-65	,,	3,623,770	5,73,074
1865-66	,,	3,368,522	4,62,755
1866-67*	,,	2,481,696	3,39,085
1867-68	,,	2,572,976	3,61,386
1868-69	,,	2,531,536	3,72,157
1869-70	,,	3,320,464	5,98,869
1870-71	,,	2,570,400	3,91,958
1871-72	,,	3,788,736	5,48,911
1872-73	No.	99,050	6,35,252
	Lb.	3,288,936	
1873-74	No.	2,000	7,90,811
	Lb.	4,225,634	
1874-75	No.	36,000	7,78,906
	Lb.	4,530,232	
1875-76	No.	500	7,32,343
	Lb.	4,530,905	
1876-77	,,	5,792,808	10,17,296

During the last few years the exports exhibit a steady increase. The increase in 1876-77 is 32·25 per cent. as regards quantity and 39 per cent. as regards value. Tobacco is exported from the East Coast Districts, especially Godavari, the bulk of it being sent to British Burmah for the manufacture of cheroots. Owing to the inferior quality of the leaf, however, it is not taken in any large quantity by the United Kingdom or other European countries. The quantities exported to the several countries during the year 1875-76 were as follow :—

Countries to which exported.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.		Rs.
United Kingdom	20,425	8,207
Mauritius	218,750	31,851
Bourbon	12,095	1,958
Ceylon	64,111	17,961
Straits Settlements	409,913	43,021
Other countries	18,819	3,760
Total	744,113	1,06,758
Foreign ports in India	80,056	9,536
Interprovincial.		
Bengal	266,533	1,23,328
Bombay	133,573	65,980
British Burmah	3,306,054	4,26,549
Scinde	576	192
Total	3,706,736	6,16,049
Grand Total	4,530,905	7,32,343

* Eleven months.

—Tea.

Of the minor commercial products of this country, tea, which is cultivated on the Nilgiris, shows rapid progress and promises ere long to become an important feature in the export trade. The suitability of the Nilgiris for tea cultivation was demonstrated nearly forty years ago by actual experiment, and the accounts show that in 1855-56 the exports of the produce amounted to 43,426 lb. valued at Rupees 34,376; in 1856-57 they had increased to 79,915 lb. valued at Rupees 57,461; in the next year, however, they fell to 13,699 lb. valued at Rupees 13,699; and in 1858-59 they had dwindled down to the insignificant figure of 53 lb. (Rupees 70). From this period the industry appears to have been totally neglected till within the last few years; it has recently revived and we find exports again in 1869-70. The progress of trade in this commodity has since been rapid, as will be seen from the figures shown below. The port of shipment is Madras and the destination the United Kingdom:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	LB.	RS.
1869-70	6,166	9,162
1870-71	17,883	18,065
1871-72	33,579	45,594
1872-73	43,426	52,417
1873-74	80,581	89,166
1874-75	93,918	1,14,383
1875-76	120,924	1,46,272
1876-77	147,132	1,66,988

—Hides and skins.

The following are the figures for hides and skins:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	NO.	RS.
1855-56	2,522,864	7,53,989
1856-57	3,412,211	13,87,833
1857-58	4,276,471	22,01,996
1858-59	4,656,919	17,65,193
1859-60	4,283,010	15,51,695
1860-61	3,868,578	16,53,782
1861-62	3,108,033	13,68,639
1862-63	4,200,424	18,85,682
1863-64	4,469,832	20,62,978
1864-65	4,278,270	19,39,439
1865-66	4,443,307	19,81,080
1866-67*	4,869,631	23,59,471
1867-68	5,158,688	28,98,739
1868-69	5,925,809	31,74,219

The trade in this article has shown a steady and progressive increase during the last twenty-two years, and the exports have risen from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to nearly 130 lakhs in value. The figures include the quantities and values of both raw and tanned hides and skins. The duty of 3 per cent. on the latter was repealed by the Tariff Act of 1875. This commodity is exported chiefly from Madras, and the direction of the traffic in 1875-76 is shown in the subjoined table. The exports to the United Kingdom and Bengal have largely increased, the expansion

* Eleven months.

of trade in this article being due to the abolition of the duty levied thereon up to August 1875 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Number.	Value.
		Rs.
Foreign.		
United Kingdom	8,574,581	98,44,830
Straits Settlements	300,717	1,12,221
Austria	31,769	54,182
United States	...	...
Ceylon	58,066	36,047
Italy	14,097	25,094
Other countries	8,644	11,779
Total ...	8,987,874	1,00,84,153
Indian ports not British ...	1	4
Interprovincial Trade.		
Bengal	781,690	6,68,124
British Burmah	127,642	48,927
Bombay	12,409	14,645
Total ...	921,941	7,31,696
Grand Total ...	9,909,816	1,08,15,853

The exports of country-made piece-goods for the same twenty-two years were as shown below :— —Cotton piece-goods.

Years.	Denomination.	Quantities.	Value.
			Rs.
1855-56	Pieces	1,894,504	21,45,918
	Yards	223,140	
1856-57	Pieces	14,226,865	20,25,299
1857-58	,, ...	1,300,434	20,87,224
	Yards	1,184	
1858-59	Pieces	1,364,344	23,67,187
1859-60	,, ...	1,169,605	20,61,318
	Yards	92	
1860-61	Pieces	1,021,219	18,74,689
1861-62	,, ...	1,132,891	20,75,600
1862-63	,, ...	894,956	19,86,766
1863-64	,, ...	679,837	16,36,131
1864-65	,, ...	575,787	15,60,666
1865-66	,, ...	762,303	20,43,953
1866-67*	Yards	7,899,958	23,55,722
	Pieces	7,102	
1867-68	Yards	12,666,449	33,68,234
1868-69	,, ...	8,265,757	23,00,271
1869-70	,, ...	5,785,362	22,18,106
	Number	7,331	
	Yards	6,110,371	
1870-71	Pieces	40	21,62,205
	Dozens	548	
	Yards	7,189,534	
	Pieces	16,268	
1871-72	Pairs	21	25,14,408
	Dozens	751	
	Yards	7,755,291	
1872-73	Pieces	902	25,69,696
	Dozens	619	
	Yards	9,181,264	
1873-74	Pieces	2,137	28,08,060
	Dozens	495	
	Yards	8,798,826	
1874-75	Pieces	23,477	28,68,125
	Dozens	508	
	Yards	7,540,114	
1875-76	Pieces	25,148	27,72,173
	Number	409,050	
	Yards	7,042,119	
1876-77	Pieces	10,721	32,55,411
	Number	1,456,516	

* Eleven months.

Except during the years of the American war, when there was a large demand for raw cotton in the European market, exports have been maintained pretty steadily. The manufacture of cloths has hitherto been carried on by means of hand-looms exclusively. Two cotton mills have, however, quite recently been established in Madras. Very good cloth is manufactured in the districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Nellore, Tanjore, and Madura, and in large quantities, the female population being dependent almost exclusively on the products of native looms. Projects have been set on foot for starting additional mills, but the duty on cotton imported from Egypt is likely to hinder enterprise in this direction, country cotton not being so suitable for machine manufacture. In the following statement are shown the countries to which cotton piece-goods were exported during the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	Denomination.	1875-76.	
		Quantities.	Value.
Foreign.			Rs.
Ceylon	Yards	4,585,841	14,50,330
	Number	95,671	68,506
Straits Settlements	Yards	1,256,137	3,97,038
	Number	16,523	7,734
United Kingdom	Yards	465,352	1,67,453
	Number	264,232	1,22,777
Sumatra	Yards	...	...
	Number	...	...
Aden	Yards	11,730	4,454
Other countries	Yards	44,178	22,132
	Number	5,342	4,850
Total	Yards	6,363,238	20,41,407
	Number	381,418	2,03,697
Indian ports not British	Yards	267,241	55,526
	Pieces	5	127
	Number	2,288	1,982
Interprovincial Trade.			
Bombay	Yards	318,224	1,45,656
	Pieces	5,843	26,791
	Number	4,929	2,529
British Burmah	Yards	563,340	2,36,029
	Pieces	19,270	35,296
	Number	18,488	11,467
Bengal	Yards	27,961	10,129
	Pieces	30	140
	Number	927	1,295
Scinde	Yards	110	102
Total	Yards	909,635	3,91,916
	Pieces	25,143	62,227
	Number	25,344	15,291
Grand Total	Yards	7,540,114	27,72,173
	Pieces	25,148	
	Number	409,050	

—Timber and wood.

The exports of timber and wood, including manufactures thereof, during the same twenty-two years have been as follows :—

Years.	Value. Rs.	Years.	Value. Rs.
1855-56	7,36,117	1866-67*	9,30,878
1856-57	8,53,704	1867-68	9,79,671
1857-58	8,82,080	1868-69	13,07,459
1858-59	8,84,444	1869-70	12,28,689
1859-60	8,47,820	1870-71	10,13,878
1860-61	9,31,917	1871-72	10,22,367
1861-62	12,37,475	1872-73	10,14,176
1862-63	11,44,023	1873-74	10,28,803
1863-64	15,70,559	1874-75	10,65,906
1864-65	16,06,538	1875-76	10,45,199
1865-66	16,54,166	1876-77	11,30,088

During the five years ending 1877 the value of the exports has averaged 10½ lakhs; in 1876-77 it rose by about 8·2 per cent. Timber and wood are chiefly exported from Malabar and South Canara to Bombay. In the following table are compared the quantity and value of timber, &c. exported to various countries in the year 1875-76:—

Countries.	1875-76. Value. Rs.
Arabia	25,193
Ceylon	5,359
Other countries	30,138
Total ...	60,690
Indian ports not British	2,21,741
Interprovincial Trade.	
Bombay	6,68,918
Scinde	47,888
Bengal	45,872
British Burmah	...
Total ...	7,62,678
Grand Total ...	10,45,199

The following are the figures for living animals:— —Animals, living.

Years.	Number.	Value.
		Rs.
1855-56	40,255	1,12,174
1856-57	26,694	62,220
1857-58	48,981	1,17,103
1858-59	57,171	1,22,565
1859-60	59,389	1,71,541
1860-61	62,148	2,11,669
1861-62	55,721	1,92,076
1862-63	43,195	1,71,577
1863-64	63,269	2,36,389
1864-65	62,171	1,66,033
1865-66	67,068	3,33,455
1866-67*	Information not available.	4,44,247
1867-68		3,23,427
1868-69		3,50,715
1869-70		4,04,108
1870-71		4,66,514
1871-72		5,65,098
1872-73		6,09,609
1873-74		7,02,724
1874-75		7,01,095
1875-76	1,02,785	7,92,747
1876-77	1,22,009	10,44,374

* Eleven months.

The value of the exports under living animals has been steadily increasing during the last ten years. The trade is chiefly between the districts of Madura, Tinnevelly, and Ceylon. The number and value of animals exported in the year 1875-76 to different countries are shown below :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	NO.	RS.
Ceylon	102,156	7,89,864
Foreign ports in India	100	24
Interprovincial.		
British Burmah	447	299
Bombay	78	1,535
Bengal	4	1,025
Total ...	529	2,859
Grand Total ...	102,785	7,92,747

—Re-exports. The value of the re-exports during a recent period of six years is shown in the subjoined statement :—

—	1871-72.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Foreign ports beyond India ...	5,94,205	6,05,802	5,92,660	9,72,251	5,12,426	6,36,355
Foreign ports in India	8,81,635	5,42,551	4,62,993	6,21,864	6,17,122	5,89,088
British ports in other Presidencies.	6,96,822	9,33,393	15,03,008	11,55,561	5,26,907	2,93,626
Total ...	21,72,662	20,81,746	25,58,661	27,49,641	16,56,455	15,19,069

The foreign re-exports are, on the whole, insignificant, being only 1 per cent. of the total import merchandise. The principal articles re-exported are cotton piece-goods, apparel, animals living, and jewellery. The cotton piece-goods are dyed in this country and exported chiefly to the Straits Settlements. Apparel and jewellery are re-exported to the United Kingdom, and animals living to Ceylon. The re-exports to foreign ports in India consist almost exclusively of cotton twist and cotton piece-goods. The destination of these is generally Pondicherry and Travancore. The interprovincial re-exports are of no importance.

Import articles under external trade.

The proportion of imports from foreign countries, imports from foreign ports in India, and imports from other Presidencies to total imports is about 64·6, ·8, and 34·6 per cent. respectively. In 1876-77 these proportions were very much altered, being 37·6, ·9, and 61·5 respectively, in consequence of the severe famine in this Presidency which stimulated interprovincial trade in food grains to abnormal activity, but produced a corresponding depression in foreign trade.

The following statement shows the principal articles of import for a recent average year, 1875-76 :—

Principal Articles.		1875-76. Quantity.	1875-76. Value.
			Rs.
Grain ... Rice	Cwt.	413,132	15,53,748
Grain ... Paddy	,,	798,440	90,19,554
Grain ... Other kinds	,,	261,097	9,98,156
Cotton ... Piece-goods	Yards.	88,563,787	143,20,756
Cotton ... Do.	No.	116,717	
Cotton ... Twist	lb.	16,018,797	123,88,399
Metals	Cwt.	433,594	49,97,332
Railway materials	Value.	...	45,95,289
Timber and wood	,,	...	15,17,622
Apparel	,,	...	18,10,154
Liquors ... Spirits	Gallons.	112,668	10,24,528
Liquors ... Wines	,,	101,710	8,35,741
Liquors ... Ale, beer, and porter ...	,,	196,128	5,02,455
All other articles		...	133,65,891
Total Merchandise ...		...	599,29,625

The imports of food grains for the last twenty-two years have been as given below :— —Paddy, rice and other grains.

Years.	Paddy. Cwt.	Paddy. Rs.	Rice. Cwt.	Rice. Rs.	Other Grains. Cwt.	Other Grains. Rs.	Total Value of all Grains. Rs.
1855-56 ...	32,665	49,366	631,357	20,48,791	116,875	3,44,051	24,42,208
1856-57 ...	214,214	3,65,622	432,138	12,23,959	132,009	3,98,250	19,87,831
1857-58 ...	217,196	3,53,328	281,420	8,21,518	117,755	3,67,312	15,42,158
1858-59 ...	373,737	7,35,322	184,554	6,48,870	117,182	3,57,479	17,41,671
1859-60 ...	238,897	4,17,298	112,951	3,66,655	121,080	3,73,302	11,57,255
1860-61 ...	291,821	5,49,846	210,710	7,48,637	104,379	3,77,516	16,75,499
1861-62 ...	340,910	7,19,206	670,152	24,40,847	135,000	5,51,950	37,12,003
1862-63 ...	274,589	5,57,377	935,013	32,02,678	125,902	5,37,246	42,97,301
1863-64 ...	367,409	8,04,248	1,042,183	38,54,227	90,278	5,64,956	51,23,433
1864-65 ...	298,169	6,17,849	1,054,161	40,32,597	96,277	5,82,357	52,32,803
1865-66 ...	491,263	12,69,030	544,674	25,12,205	94,558	5,88,771	43,70,006
1866-67* ...	465,291	13,88,107	271,999	14,51,723	121,920	11,51,545	39,91,375
1867-68 ...	561,909	14,24,109	351,585	15,40,690	146,806	6,97,927	36,62,726
1868-69 ...	534,271	13,72,779	526,127	21,35,879	218,580	8,04,568	43,13,226
1869-70 ...	637,868	15,76,008	936,122	37,89,426	82,952	4,06,539	57,71,973
1870-71 ...	344,744	7,10,636	828,565	29,83,080		7,51,244	44,44,960
1871-72 ...	287,089	5,99,080	732,103	25,21,655	Not	5,31,021	36,51,756
1872-73 ...	329,789	7,39,261	864,756	31,14,109	avail-	7,21,536	45,74,906
1873-74 ...	539,706	12,67,668	562,754	20,38,452	able.	15,76,217	48,82,337
1874-75 ...	807,559	20,23,948	372,900	13,77,334		10,92,230	44,93,509
1875-76 ...	798,440	20,19,554	413,132	15,53,749	261,097	9,98,156	45,71,458
1876-77 ...	1,215,832	37,13,374	5,996,665	3,27,63,487	1,400,692	66,18,384	4,30,95,245

The figures fluctuate very much, being dependent on the nature of the harvests in this Presidency as well as on other sources of supply. But in the later years of serials there has been a decided improvement, and this notwithstanding the famine in Bengal; owing to the present famine the imports have assumed enormous proportions, the value for 1876-77 being nearly ten-fold that of 1875-76. The subjoined statement shows the quantity and value of grain received from the several countries during the year 1875-76. Ceylon does not usually supply but receives grain from this Presidency; in 1876-77, however, the imports from that country amounted to 6½ lakhs of rupees. The value of imports from Bengal increased in 1876-77 twenty-three-fold and those from Bombay and British Burmah three-fold.

* Eleven months.

Countries.	1875-76. Paddy. Quantity.	Paddy. Value.	Rice. Quantity.	Rice. Value.	Other Grains. Quantity.	Other Grains. Value.	Total Value of all Grains	Total Value of all Grains.
Foreign Countries.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ceylon	3	7	205	876	792	2,923	3,806	6,48,232
Other countries.	...	...	3	12	123	534	546	2,46,471
Total ...	3	7	208	888	915	3,457	4,352	8,94,703
Foreign ports in India	2,018	5,313	2,822	11,250	4,125	14,121	30,684	3,96,358
Interprovincial Trade.								
Bengal	60,456	1,69,839	270,889	10,41,257	54,593	2,40,739	14,51,835	3,29,74,952
Bombay	400,553	10,69,183	71,555	2,87,521	163,454	6,04,481	19,61,185	56,17,859
British Burmah.	307,849	7,04,719	67,344	2,11,546	32,365	1,14,857	10,31,122	27,92,128
Scinde	27,561	70,493	314	1,287	5,645	20,501	92,281	4,19,245
Total ...	796,419	20,14,234	410,102	15,41,611	256,057	9,80,578	45,36,423	4,18,74,184
Grand Total ...	798,440	20,19,554	413,132	15,53,749	261,097	9,98,156	45,71,459	4,30,95,245

—Cotton piece-goods.

The following are the figures for piece-goods :—

Years.	Denomination.	Quantities.	Value.
			Rs.
1855-56	Pieces	825,406	27,85,199
	Yards	311,815	
1856-57	Pieces	742,773	28,52,383
	Yards	478,899	
1857-58	Pieces	985,067	37,92,992
	Yards	1,202,500	
1858-59	Pieces	1,109,998	44,27,005
	Yards	2,693,436	
1859-60	Pieces	991,922	48,94,476
	Yards	9,865,548	
1860-61	Pieces	1,577,515	61,40,183
1861-62	,, ...	1,228,051	52,38,752
1862-63	,, ...	1,449,846	64,16,495
1863-64	,, ...	1,694,346	1,01,12,573
1864-65	,, ...	1,470,388	95,87,776
1865-66	,, ...	1,606,129	1,12,47,895
1866-67*	Yards	42,090,843	1,02,33,102
	Pairs	3,062	
	Dozens	13,897	
1867-68	Yards	57,943,399	1,20,26,540
	Pieces	636	
	Dozens	17,488	
1868-69	Yards	66,926,335	1,35,43,760
	Pieces	1,396	
	Pairs	2,656	
	Dozens	47,587½	
1869-70	Yards	71,927,986	1,25,64,225
	Pieces	2,525	
	Pairs	33	
	Dozens	39,247½	
1870-71	Yards	94,600,201	1,49,66,869
	Dozens	11,460½	
1871-72	Yards	93,802,169	1,52,94,988
	Pieces	301	
	Dozens	38,507	
1872-73	Yards	86,584,277	1,41,44,953
	Pieces	303	
	Dozens	30,342½	
1873-74	Yards	96,477,264	1,56,98,902
	Pieces	81	
	Dozens	17,191	
1874-75	Yards	78,988,740	1,35,60,894
	Pieces	7,634	
	Dozens	11,012	
1875-76	Yards	88,563,787	1,43,20,756
	Number	116,717	
1876-77	Yards	87,317,101	1,43,45,021
	Number	149,061	

* Eleven months.

The value of the imports of cotton piece-goods has increased nearly six-fold. In 1855-56 it amounted to 28 lakhs of rupees, but it rapidly rose till in the year 1860-61 it reached 61½ lakhs notwithstanding the increase of duty in 1859-60 from 5 to 10 per cent. In 1861-62 there was a fall, but in the next year the duty was reduced to 5 per cent. and the value of imports rose to 64 lakhs and in 1863-64 to 101 lakhs. With the exception of the years 1864-65 and 1866-67, which consisted only of eleven months, the imports steadily rose till in 1868-69 the value amounted to 135 lakhs. In 1869-70 the Tariff valuations were reduced 15 per cent., consequently there was in that year a fall in the declared value to 125 lakhs though there was an increase in quantity. For the next five years the imports averaged 147 lakhs of rupees. In 1875-76 the Tariff valuation was again lowered, but this circumstance has been more than counterbalanced by the additional impetus given to trade thereby, and the imports during the last two years have amounted to a little over 143 lakhs of rupees. The following statement shows the countries from which cotton piece-goods were imported during the year 1875-76:—

Countries.	Denomination.	1875-76.	
		Quantities.	Value.
Foreign Countries.			Rs.
United Kingdom	Yards	48,012,111	7,512,958
	Number	103,062	11,975
Ceylon	Yards	18,717,416	30,37,855
	Number	899	359
France	Yards	170,576	61,424
	Number	12,676	3,487
Straits Settlements	Yards	90,950	20,790
	Number	80	10
Other countries	Yards	11,795	2,852
	Number	...	...
Total	Yards	67,002,848	1,06,35,879
	Number	116,717	15,831
Indian ports not British	Yards	52,010	18,263
Interprovincial Trade.			
Bombay	Yards	17,094,754	27,74,139
	Number	...	...
Bengal	Yards	4,181,070	8,34,834
	Number	...	...
British Burmah	Yards	233,105	41,810
	Number	...	...
Total	Yards	21,508,929	36,50,783
	Number	...	...
Grand Total	Yards	88,563,787	1,43,20,756
	Number	116,717	

The imports of cotton twist for the same twenty-two years are shown below :— —Cotton twist.

Years.	Quantities.	Value.	Years.	Quantities.	Value.
	LB.	RS.		LB.	RS.
1855-56	3,929,339	22,68,071	1866-67 *	7,165,098	78,59,122
1856-57	4,205,740	22,70,388	1867-68	9,196,894	83,36,638
1857-58	3,504,233	21,45,307	1868-69	10,095,240	91,63,489
1858-59	6,147,607	35,46,077	1869-70	11,683,508	92,71,945
1859-60	7,366,788	41,59,590	1870-71	12,902,600	1,04,27,948
1860-61	7,035,001	38,84,960	1871-72	11,714,712	94,78,866
1861-62	6,177,535	33,05,750	1872-73	14,288,269	1,07,30,337
1862-63	4,023,301	25,85,638	1873-74	13,264,405	1,04,08,275
1863-64	6,978,675	45,82,792	1874-75	14,150,868	1,08,86,821
1864-65	6,418,914	61,76,796	1875-76	16,018,797	1,23,88,399
1865-66	6,522,650	71,61,022	1876-77	16,476,463	1,13,40,439

The quantity has risen from 39 to 165 lakhs of pounds and the value from 22 to 113 lakhs of rupees. The lower valuation prescribed by the Tariff of 1875 has stimulated imports, and there is accordingly an increase in the quantity imported in 1876-77 although the value shows a decrease. The following are the countries which supplied the twist in the year 1875-76. There was a large decrease in the imports from the United Kingdom and an increase in those from Bombay and Bengal. The decrease in the English imports is probably attributable to some extent to the competition of the mills established at Bombay as well as to depression of cotton manufactures in this Presidency owing to the famine.

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantities.	Value.
Foreign.	LB.	RS.
United Kingdom	10,573,518	93,81,817
Ceylon	101,500	73,992
Other countries	12,210	16,542
Total ...	10,687,228	94,72,351
Foreign ports in India	115	35
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	4,720,213	23,94,470
Bengal	611,241	5,21,543
British Burmah	...	...
Total ...	5,331,454	29,16,013
Grand Total ...	16,018,727	1,23,88,399

—Metals. The following are the figures for metals :—

Years.	Value.
	RS.
1855-56	10,80,744
1856-57	19,88,816
1857-58	19,19,355
1858-59	24,32,980

* Eleven months.

Years.	Value. Rs.
1859-60	22,82,490
1860-61	30,29,989
1861-62	36,22,062
1862-63	23,32,773
1863-64	33,72,913
1864-65	37,51,840
1865-66	31,83,285
1866-67 *	30,32,582
1867-68	40,12,577
1868-69	43,36,849
1869-70	46,67,756
1870-71	39,81,539
1871-72	32,24,870
1872-73	27,16,845
1873-74	31,36,058
1874-75	35,89,154
1875-76	49,97,332
1876-77	43,28,798

The value of imports of metals has risen from about 11 lakhs to upwards of 40 lakhs of rupees. Up to 1863-64 a duty of 10 per cent. was levied on metals, but in that year the duty on iron was reduced to 1 per cent. In the following year the duty on other metals was reduced to 7½ per cent. The Tariff valuation was reduced about 15 per cent. in 1869-70 but it was raised again in 1875, though at the same time the duty on metals other than iron was reduced from 7½ to 5 per cent. The imports of 1875-76 amounted to 50 lakhs of rupees, the highest figure reached; but in 1876-77 there was a falling off by nearly 13 per cent. Manufactures of iron and copper are imported from the United Kingdom, tin from the Straits Settlements, copper unwrought from Australia. Bengal also supplies brass, copper, iron, and tin, and Bombay the same metals in larger quantities. The following table shows the countries from which the supplies of metals were obtained in the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantities.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	CWTS.	Rs.
United Kingdom	315,909	29,78,473
Straits Settlements	3,820	1,77,008
Ceylon	11,863	74,536
Australia	1,002	56,235
Other countries	112	5,338
Total ...	332,706	32,91,590
Foreign ports in India	717	9,727
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	61,905	10,92,262
Bengal	33,010	5,56,681
British Burmah	5,256	47,072
Total ...	100,171	16,96,015
Grand Total ...	433,594	49,97,332

* Eleven months.

—Railway materials.

The following statement shows the value of railway materials imported during the same twenty-two years:—

Years.	Value. Rs.
1855-56	22,41,162
1856-57	32,46,923
1857-58	4,98,108
1858-59	8,00,014
1859-60	21,61,136
1860-61	26,56,226
1861-62	27,75,494
1862-63	9,26,179
1863-64	21,14,588
1864-65	15,84,102
1865-66	33,98,924
1866-67	14,56,453
1867-68	34,44,375
1868-69	19,19,338
1869-70	8,19,871
1870-71	19,85,305
1871-72	6,02,319
1872-73	3,60,267
1873-74	12,85,673
1874-75	32,70,336
1875-76	45,95,289
1876-77	20,75,164

The value of imports of this class of goods necessarily fluctuates, inasmuch as the traffic depends upon extension of railway communication in this country. The large increase in the years 1874-75 and 1875-76 was due to the construction of the South Indian Railway; the approaching completion of the line led to large falling off, which is noticeable in 1876-77. Railway materials are obtained almost exclusively from the United Kingdom.

—Timber and wood.

The imports of timber during the same twenty-two years are shown in the subjoined statement:—

Years.	Value. Rs.
1855-56	9,28,712
1856-57	10,42,322
1857-58	16,41,951
1858-59	9,14,288
1859-60	8,41,122
1860-61	7,14,255
1861-62	7,10,036
1862-63	10,72,578
1863-64	10,29,853
1864-65	12,32,257
1865-66	20,06,822
1866-67	10,67,665
1867-68	12,19,703
1868-69	12,42,129
1869-70	13,84,172
1870-71	12,54,967
1871-72	10,47,406
1872-73	11,97,435

Years.	Value. Rs.
1873-74	13,52,080
1874-75	15,79,554
1875-76	15,17,622
1876-77	17,21,911

During the last five years the value of the imports has averaged Rupees 14,83,720. Timber is principally obtained from British Burmah. The table below shows the value of timber and the several countries from which it was obtained in the year 1875-76 :—

	1875-76. Value. Rs.
Foreign Countries.	
Ceylon	2,40,098
United Kingdom	31,973
Other countries	14,040
Total	2,86,111
Foreign Indian ports	87,551
Interprovincial.	
British Burmah	10,01,497
Bombay	1,22,786
Bengal	12,513
Scinde	7,164
Total	11,43,960
Grand Total	15,17,622

The progress of trade under the head of apparel is shown in the subjoined statement:— —Apparel.

Years.	Value. Rs.
1855-56	7,39,597
1856-57	8,35,747
1857-58	10,97,186
1858-59	12,78,149
1859-60	11,12,170
1860-61	10,65,927
1861-62	10,54,715
1862-63	10,33,052
1863-64	11,60,863
1864-65	12,85,052
1865-66	12,31,181
1866-67	9,36,385
1867-68	11,50,663
1868-69	12,93,019
1869-70	11,91,219
1870-71	11,76,281
1871-72	15,37,782
1872-73	16,23,705
1873-74	16,28,656
1874-75	14,48,625
1875-76	18,10,154
1876-77	16,32,621

The following table shows the countries from which apparel is imported and the value for a recent average year:—

	1875-76.
	RS.
Foreign Countries.	
United Kingdom	8,94,592
France	6,15,137
Ceylon	8,034
Other countries	13,388
Total ...	15,31,151
Foreign ports in India	2,692
Interprovincial.	
Bengal	22,080
Bombay	2,47,734
British Burmah	6,263
Total ...	2,76,077
Grand Total ...	18,10,154

—Spirits. The progress in the imports of spirits is shown in the subjoined statement:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	GLS.	RS.
1855-56	257,223	4,82,232
1856-57	200,422	3,62,148
1857-58	44,187	2,02,436
1858-59	91,188	6,33,036
1859-60	27,640	1,85,255
1860-61	31,659	2,55,125
1861-62	34,461	2,87,670
1862-63	54,285	4,73,550
1863-64	68,127	5,99,348
1864-65	45,281	3,86,579
1865-66	68,149	6,10,344
1866-67	59,917	5,27,730
1867-68	75,257	6,39,605
1868-69	85,729	7,76,043
1869-70	114,518	10,15,528
1870-71	93,485	8,52,126
1871-72	84,989	7,68,163
1872-73	94,660	8,07,817
1873-74	71,991	6,30,737
1874-75	69,554	6,17,072
1875-76	112,668	10,24,528
1876-77	99,889	9,07,178

During the last five years the imports have averaged 89,752 gallons in quantity and 7,97,472 rupees in value. Up to 1858-59 the duty levied on spirits was Rupees 1-8-0 a gallon; it was in that year raised to Rupees 3. This rate continued in force till 1875, when it was further raised to Rupees 4. The imports of 1876-77 show a falling off of 11½ per cent., but this can hardly be attributed solely to the operation of the higher rate of duty. The imports fluctuate considerably from year to year, and their value in 1875-76 was the highest

recorded. The following table shows the quantity and value of the spirits imported from the several countries in the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	GLS.	RS.
United Kingdom	85,698	7,66,735
France	18,188	1,86,053
Ceylon	614	6,492
Other Countries	202	2,022
Total ...	104,697	9,61,302
Foreign Ports in India	1,118	10,626
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	6,423	48,935
Bengal	430	3,665
British Burmah	...	...
Total ...	6,853	52,600
Grand Total ...	112,668	10,24,528

The imports of wines for the same twenty-two years are given below :— —Wines.

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	GLS.	RS.
1855-56	55,848	5,84,037
1856-57	34,267	2,46,775
1857-58	52,314	3,52,576
1858-59	87,307	7,62,304
1859-60	65,467	6,35,401
1860-61	58,484	5,67,371
1861-62	51,088	4,77,598
1862-63	55,109	4,74,276
1863-64	86,451	7,28,327
1864-65	71,182	5,82,430
1865-66	85,570	7,59,141
1866-67	95,594	7,78,261
1867-68	102,366	8,55,638
1868-69	112,847	8,84,946
1869-70	132,354	11,41,279
1870-71	105,920	10,14,550
1871-72	106,776	9,54,876
1872-73	116,827	10,42,821
1873-74	120,468	10,23,206
1874-75	90,435	7,31,283
1875-76	101,710	8,35,741
1876-77	91,054	6,49,637

The figures fluctuate very much, but on the whole during the later years of the series there has been an increase. The duty originally levied on wines and liquors was 1 rupee per gallon; it was increased to 2 rupees in 1859. In 1862 a differential rate of 1 rupee; Rupees 2 was prescribed for higher wines and other kinds respectively, but in 1863 this was abandoned and the original uniform rate of 1 rupee a gallon was reverted to. This continued in force till 1867 when sparkling wines and liquors were taxed at Rupees $1\frac{1}{2}$ per gallon, and all other wines at Rupee 1. In August 1875 the duties were further enhanced, the present rates being $2\frac{1}{2}$ rupees for sparkling wines, and

1½ rupees for all other wines except claret and Still Burgundy, which pay 1 rupee. In 1876-77 the imports fell below those of any of the preceding ten years, this result being probably due to the recent enhancement of the duties. In the following statement are contrasted the quantities and values of wines imported from the several countries during the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	GLS.	RS.
United Kingdom	65,660	6,46,407
France	18,848	98,494
Ceylon	618	5,380
Other Countries	662	4,035
Total ...	85,788	7,54,316
Foreign Ports in India	12,047	50,986
Interprovincial.		
Bombay	3,509	26,071
Bengal	358	4,293
British Burmah	8	75
Total ...	3,875	30,439
Grand Total ...	101,710	8,35,741

—Ale, beer, and porter.

The imports of malt liquors—ale, beer, and porter—for the same twenty-two years are given in the subjoined statement :—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	GLS.	RS.
1855-56	609,105	5,26,491
1856-57	366,346	2,98,035
1857-58	177,177	1,82,852
1858-59	498,822	5,38,487
1859-60	518,551	6,41,837
1860-61	294,360	4,81,374
1861-62	194,155	3,35,766
1862-63	237,189	5,53,480
1863-64	276,773	6,69,678
1864-65	331,873	7,56,838
1865-66	293,999	6,66,830
1866-67*	331,258	8,24,256
1867-68	283,100	7,42,358
1868-69	323,533	7,75,434
1869-70	264,239	6,64,505
1870-71	260,595	6,76,362
1871-72	172,514	4,53,272
1872-73	284,358	7,78,051
1873-74	239,985	6,11,041
1874-75	269,875	6,97,363
1875-76	196,128	5,02,455
1876-77	180,889	3,95,313

These imports in like manner with wines fluctuate greatly. Prior to 1859-60 these liquors paid a duty of 5 per cent., but in that year a duty of 4 annas an imperial gallon was substituted. In 1862-63 the duty was reduced to 2 annas, and in the following year to 1 anna, which is the present rate.

*Eleven months.

In the following statement are compared the quantity and value of the imports according to the source of supply during the year 1875-76.

Countries.	1875-76.	
	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Countries.	GLS.	RS.
United Kingdom	191,976	4,91,659
Ceylon	1,214	3,221
Other Countries	4	6
Total ...	193,194	4,94,886
Foreign Ports in India	...	...
Interprovincial.		
Bengal	504	1,777
Bombay	2,406	5,720
British Burmah	24	72
Total ...	2,934	7,569
Grand Total ...	196,138	5,02,455

Government stores, imports and exports.

The imports of Government stores during the year 1876-77 amounted to Rupees 41,15,855 :—

	1876-77.
	RS.
Foreign Countries	34,68,792
Interprovincial, not British	5,329
British Ports in other Presidencies	8,69,830
Total ...	43,43,951

The principal articles imported are building materials, hardware and cutlery, liquors, machinery, paper, telegraph materials, woollen, piece-goods, salt, agricultural implements, gram and tea. All these articles, excepting salt, arrack (liquors), gram and tea, are obtained from the United Kingdom ; salt is obtained from Bombay for consumption in the West Coast Districts ; arrack from Ceylon for consumption within the Town of Madras and its environs and agricultural implements, gram and tea from Bengal. The exports under this head are generally insignificant. The total exports and imports of Government stores during a recent six years are compared below :—

Years.	Exports.	Imports.
	RS.	RS.
1871-72	84,662	27,63,254
1872-73	7,205	41,40,418
1873-74	830	25,44,848
1874-75	87,504	43,97,664
1875-76	18,652	42,97,428
1876-77	2,80,167	43,43,951

Treasure, imports and exports.

The subjoined statement shows the imports and exports of treasure for this Presidency during a recent twenty-two years. The figures do not include remittances between ports within the Presidency :—

Years.	Imports.			Exports.			Net Imports.
	By Government.	By Private Individuals.	Total.	By Government.	By Private Individuals.	Total.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1855-56 ...	...	137,10,286	137,10,286	7,14,637	37,03,614	44,18,251	92,92,035
1856-57 ...	...	170,37,382	170,37,382	10,00,000	23,33,678	33,33,678	137,03,704
1857-58 ...	...	186,21,912	186,21,912	24,22,016	91,29,456	115,51,472	70,70,440
1858-59 ...	3,03,310	139,92,897	142,96,207	...	56,61,731	56,61,731	86,34,476
1859-60 ...	51,624	173,88,060	174,39,684	...	40,97,547	40,97,547	133,42,137
1860-61 ...	...	207,25,887	207,25,887	...	59,88,481	59,88,481	147,37,406
1861-62 ...	...	222,35,900	222,35,900	...	36,58,486	36,58,486	186,27,414
1862-63 ...	51,02,833	252,84,057	303,86,890	30,00,000	26,50,551	56,50,551	247,36,339
1863-64 ...	44,30,000	316,45,736	360,75,736	137,03,000	63,36,284	220,39,284	140,36,452
1864-65 ...	...	303,13,248	303,13,248	89,20,000	91,95,192	181,15,192	121,98,056
1865-66 ...	...	366,41,092	366,41,092	62,00,000	64,03,368	126,03,368	240,37,724
1866-67 ...	...	136,83,955	136,83,955	67,28,685	108,00,995	175,29,680	— 38,45,725
1867-68 ...	...	112,93,529	112,93,529	79,00,000	22,55,634	101,55,634	11,37,895
1868-69 ...	...	225,60,091	225,60,091	5,23,000	31,58,960	36,81,960	188,78,131
1869-70 ...	...	176,42,023	176,42,023	5,60,243	55,62,414	61,22,657	115,19,366
1870-71 ...	3,00,000	79,68,321	82,68,321	62,91,917	109,21,044	172,12,961	— 89,44,640
1871-72 ...	3,00,000	101,82,238	104,82,238	6,05,525	62,62,299	68,67,824	36,14,414
1872-73 ...	3,35,300	115,81,380	119,16,680	35,26,093	34,66,865	69,92,958	49,23,722
1873-74 ...	2,00,000	82,67,633	84,67,633	87,89,492	96,54,642	183,94,134	— 99,26,501
1874-75 ...	8,82,000	87,10,178	95,92,178	64,28,642	33,26,323	97,54,965	— 1,62,787
1875-76 ...	6,97,000	88,65,079	95,62,079	12,06,305	31,65,232	43,71,537	51,90,542
1876-77 ...	45,99,293	81,88,615	127,87,908	31,07,043	65,51,077	96,58,120	31,29,788

Of recent years the net imports have greatly diminished. The net imports of gold and silver during the same twenty-two years are separately shown below. The imports of silver are chiefly from Bombay and Bengal. There are large exports to Ceylon :—

Years.	Net Imports of Gold.	Net Imports of Silver.
	Rs.	Rs.
1855-56	22,39,226	70,52,809
1856-57	29,77,753	107,25,951
1857-58	45,56,539	25,13,901
1858-59	31,84,436	54,50,040
1859-60	51,57,188	81,84,949
1860-61	74,04,090	73,33,316
1861-62	93,20,865	93,06,549
1862-63	118,91,511	128,44,828
1863-64	128,40,654	11,95,798
1864-65	131,33,199	9,35,143
1865-66	109,08,532	131,29,192
1866-67*	31,68,461	70,14,186
1867-68	56,49,238	45,11,343
1868-69	85,26,747	103,51,384
1869-70	99,05,334	16,14,032
1870-71	46,88,957	136,33,597
1871-72	50,65,336	14,50,922
1872-73	47,69,228	1,54,494
1873-74	17,05,286	116,31,787
1874-75	22,28,960	23,91,747
1875-76	29,13,576	22,76,966
1876-77	14,85,139	16,44,649

Interportal trade.

The interportal import trade within the Presidency in a recent average year amounted in value to 302 lakhs of rupees and the export trade to 266 lakhs. The total interportal trade bears generally

* Eleven months.

the proportion of 22 per cent. to the total trade. The following statement compares the exports and imports for the six years ending 1877 :—

—		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
		RS.	RS.	RS.
1871-72	Imports.	168,71,844	37,96,702	206,68,546
	Exports.	166,21,320	48,58,847	214,80,167
1872-73	Imports.	150,09,423	17,18,461	167,27,884
	Exports.	153,64,519	18,18,097	171,82,616
1873-74	Imports.	170,59,961	45,47,051	216,07,012
	Exports.	172,11,459	43,60,070	215,71,529
1874-75	Imports.	181,50,313	21,71,896	203,22,209
	Exports.	169,16,224	28,40,892	197,57,116
1875-76	Imports.	172,59,681	24,09,141	196,68,822
	Exports.	163,72,272	29,91,753	193,64,025
1876-77	Imports.	302,01,506	59,70,693	361,72,199
	Exports.	266,50,099	66,04,278	332,54,377

The following statement shows the principal commodities imported and exported during the average year 1875-76 :— —Imports and exports under interportal trade.

Articles.	Imports in 1875-76. Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Exports in 1875-76. Quantity.	Value.
		RS.			RS.
Coffee ... ... Cwt.	21,472	8,10,086	Coffee ... ... lb.	2,401,280	8,16,713
Coir and rope ... ... „	20,064	1,52,563	Coir and rope ... ... Cwt.	10,588	60,861
Cotton—			Cotton—		
Twist ... ... lb.	2,599,765	19,11,852	Piece-goods ... ... Yds.	9,816,358	22,79,761
Manufactures—				15,996	9,268
Piece-goods ... ... Yds.	12,757,176	22,28,216	Indigo ... ... lb.	47,740	62,671
No.	7,247	8,541	Grains and Pulse—		
Dyeing and coloring, &c. Cwt	8,045	1,46,055	Paddy ... ... Cwt.	763,259	13,68,235
Grain and Pulse—			Rice ... ... „	895,321	29,62,886
Paddy ... ... Cwt.	745,579	16,29,583	Other sorts ... ... „	361,309	8,42,444
Rice ... ... „	859,917	31,70,605	Hides and skins ... No.	189,456	1,86,483
Other grains ... ... „	330,297	9,96,398	Liquors—		
Liquors—			Spirits ... ... Gals.	47,157	1,86,682
Ale, beer, and porter Gls.	15,808	45,715	Oils ... ... „	187,396	2,01,290
Spirits ... ... „	50,890	2,17,399	Provisions ... ... Val.	...	3,53,053
Wines ... ... „	5,726	51,343	Seeds ... ... Cwt.	176,771	6,71,639
Metals	...	5,57,839	Spices ... . lb.	7,578,981	9,40,632
Oils ... ... „	145,152	1,83,910	Sugar and other saccharine		
Provisions ... ... Val.	...	4,09,551	matter. ... ... Cwt.	52,100	2,41,338
Salt ... ... Tons.	6,801	3,12,403	Tobacco ... ... lb.	2,298,202	2,43,182
Seed ... ... Cwt.	174,026	7,77,828	Timber and Manufactures		
Spices ... ... lb.	6,813,669	8,69,114	of ... ... Val.	...	1,99,576
Sugar and other saccha-			All other articles, &c. „	...	47,45,567
rine matter, ... Cwt.	56,616	3,08,293			
Tobacco ... ... lb.	2,445,526	2,67,378			
No.	4,000	...			
Timber and manufactures of Val.	...	2,69,687			
Wool—					
Manufactures of ... „	...	66,038			
All other articles, &c. ...	...	18,72,268			
Total ...	...	172,59,681	Total ...	...	163,72,272

The movements of treasure within the Presidency are represented in a recent average year by imports Rupees 59,70,693 and exports Rupees 66,04,278. —Treasure under interportal trade.

The share of each district in the total value of the general trade including treasure for a recent average year is shown below :— Trade by districts.

		Trade with Foreign Countries.	Trade with Foreign Ports in India.	Trade with other Presidencies.	Trade between Ports within the Presidency.	Total.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ...	Imports.	321,50,445	1,12,629	366,09,886	145,45,935	834,18,895
	Exports.	308,87,228	7,34,237	53,15,313	84,81,756	454,18,534
Ganjam ...	Imports.	29,577	4,114	17,21,591	10,61,935	28,17,217
	Exports.	14,68,163	16,236	7,55,160	34,92,828	56,72,387
Vizagapatam ...	Imports.	62,967	4,551	1,18,840	25,82,595	37,68,953
	Exports.	24,02,307	47,357	5,40,438	13,37,233	43,27,335
Godavari ...	Imports.	41,605	54,854	12,76,819	31,89,072	45,62,350
	Exports.	44,27,543	1,18,822	23,78,694	68,82,422	138,07,481
Kistna	Imports.	3,526	6,905	1,79,253	23,37,130	25,26,814
	Exports.	3,39,376	27,932	9,01,592	27,06,816	39,75,716
Nellore	Imports.	...	..	3,52,701	15,79,487	19,32,188
	Exports.	577	940	47,423	8,21,139	8,70,079
South Arcot ...	Imports.	4,40,006	8,895	11,21,819	4,70,515	21,01,235
	Exports.	5,33,951	1,217	15,656	2,49,601	8,00,425
Tanjore ...	Imports.	47.65,006	9,773	14,59,377	7,93,778	70,27,934
	Exports.	64,31,797	76,418	3,64,366	9,73,028	78,45,609
Madura ...	Imports.	4,04,764	35,908	4,91,920	5,45,755	14,78,347
	Exports.	3,06,501	540	50	3,51,017	11,58,108
Tinnevelly ...	Imports.	35,59,389	14,756	21,71,320	8,19,388	65,64,853
	Exports.	80,42,838	1,27,701	2,60,826	2,25,778	86,57,143
Malabar ...	Imports.	5,87,828	5,72,658	195,08,555	64,34,527	271,93,568
	Exports.	124,12,904	8,10,923	100,48,668	54,34,973	287,07,468
South Canara ...	Imports.	2,18,003	38,514	27,78,864	18,12,082	48,47,463
	Exports.	24,81,557	4,62,449	20,54,593	22,97,786	72,96,385
Total ...	Imports.	422,63,116	8,63,557	689,40,945	361,72,199	1,482,39,817
	Exports.	701,74,742	24,24,772	226,82,779	332,54,377	1,285,36,670

The chief port has, of course, the largest share (nearly half) of the trade; Malabar comes next (20 per cent.); then follow Godavari (rather less than 7 per cent.), Tinnevelly and Tanjore (a little over 5 per cent.), and South Canara (nearly 4 per cent.); and after these come Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Kistna, South Arcot, Nellore, and Madura in order. At the port of Madras the import trade is the more important, and in other districts the exports.

Trade according to countries engaged.

The subjoined comparative statement shows the extent of the imports and exports of merchandize and treasure with the principal countries engaged in the trade during a recent average year :—

Countries.		Merchandize. 1875-76.	Treasure. 1875-76.
		Rs.	Rs.
United Kingdom.	Imports.	343,51,880	21,58,263
	Exports.	402,84,003	1,64,300
Austria	Imports.	38,198	...
	Exports.	23,07,582	...
France	Imports.	11,29,123	76,735
	Exports.	107,98,380	...
Holland ...	Imports.	382	...
	Exports.	4,19,340	...
Italy	Imports.	89,614	...
	Exports.	14,32,845	...
Other Countries in Europe.	Imports.	16,392	...
	Exports.	1,08,401	...
Mauritius ...	Imports.	1,048	4,000
	Exports.	4,74,580	...
Bourbon ...	Imports.	68	...
	Exports.	2,23,019	...
Other Countries in Africa.	Imports.	150	5,625
	Exports.	58,513	...
United States ...	Imports.	2,82,994	...
	Exports.	94,753	...
Other Countries in America.	Imports.	10	...
	Exports.	99,256	...
Aden	Imports.	286	...
	Exports.	92,226	...

Countries.		Merchandize. 1875-76.	Treasure. 1875-76.
		Rs.	Rs.
Arabia	Imports.	32,587	...
	Exports.	2,21,225	...
Ceylon	Imports.	50,15,136	33,11,761
	Exports.	122,70,706	25,47,038
China	Imports.	34,900	...
	Exports.	9,33,749	...
Persia	Imports.	3,927	...
	Exports.	2,42,549	...
Straits Settlements	Imports.	7,52,871	6,650
	Exports.	11,25,054	13,783
Turkey in Asia ...	Imports.	37,707	10,483
	Exports.	5,87,661	...
Other Countries in Asia.	Imports.	2,01,155	...
	Exports.	53,631	...
New South Wales	Imports.	2,50,977	50,000
	Exports.	5,155	...
Victoria	Imports.	71,193	...
	Exports.	2,15,085	...
Other Countries in Australia.	Imports.	1,590	...
	Exports.	21,267	...
Total Foreign ...	Imports.	423,12,188	56,23,517
	Exports.	720,68,998	27,25,121
Bengal	Imports.	69,42,874	9,84,964
	Exports.	46,90,887	11,55,526
Bombay	Imports.	119,30,276	27,97,523
	Exports.	96,15,240	1,17,515
Scinde	Imports.	1,71,444	1,400
	Exports.	1,34,106	...
British Burmah ...	Imports.	24,00,382	1,17,175
	Exports.	18,20,171	87,975
British Ports with the Presidency.	Imports.	172,59,681	24,09,141
	Exports.	163,72,272	29,91,753
Pondicherry ...	Imports.	97,403	7,200
	Exports.	7,70,440	2,70,400
Travancore ...	Imports.	1,62,027	4,000
	Exports.	1,79,815	15,000
Other Indian Ports	Imports.	2,10,459	26,300
	Exports.	12,21,005	...
Total Coasting ...	Imports.	391,74,546	63,47,703
	Exports.	348,10,936	46,38,169
Grand Total ...	Imports.	814,86,734	119,71,220
	Exports.	1,068,79,943	73,63,290

England takes the larger portion of the exports of almost all the articles and supplies the principal articles of import, so that these figures indicate a considerable depression in trade. With Austria the import trade is of no importance, but there are generally considerable exports of coffee and cotton to that country. France supplies this Presidency with apparel and liquors and takes coffee, cotton, seeds (gingelly), and spices. The imports, which consist of articles in demand among the higher classes of Europeans in this country, fell off but slightly, but there was a large decrease amounting to 22 per cent. in the exports. With Holland there was till recently but very little trade, but in 1875-76 the value of cotton exported amounted to nearly 4 lakhs of rupees; in 1876-77, however, the exports fell again to a little over 2 lakhs. Italy takes cotton and coffee. The exports of these articles in 1876-77 decreased by 67 per cent. The exports to other countries in Europe exhibit an increase, as coffee valued at 3 lakhs of rupees was for the first time exported to Portugal. The trade with Mauritius and Bourbon consists of exports of rice and seeds. With America the trade is very limited. Of the countries in Asia

trade is carried on principally with Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, China, Persia, and Turkey. Rice and other grains, cotton piece-goods, and animals are the principal exports to Ceylon, and the imports from that country consists chiefly of cotton piece-goods. From the Straits Settlements spices, gums, and metals are imported, and the exports to those places are cotton piece-goods and hides and skins. With China the import trade is insignificant, and exports consist entirely of raw cotton. To Persia and Turkey coffee is exported. The exports to the Australian Continent consist chiefly of rice, and the principal imports are copper and horses. As regards the interprovincial trade, the principal imports from Bengal are rice and other grains, the cotton piece-goods, cotton twist, and metals, and the principal exports cotton, seeds, hides and skins, spices, coffee, tobacco, and oils. Bombay procures from this Presidency coffee, spices, oils, cocoanuts, timber, coir, and sugar, and supplies cotton piece-goods, cotton twist, and metals. With Scinde the trade is not of great importance. Burmah usually takes oils, seeds, tobacco, and cotton piece-goods, and supplies rice and timber.

Customs revenue.

The total gross Customs revenue during a recent average year amounted to—

	Rs.
Duty on imports	19,24,422
Do. on exports	5,38,494
Total ...	24,62,916

Deducting refunds and drawbacks in this year to the amount of Rupees 32,178, the net revenue was Rupees 24,30,738, of which Rupees 18,94,162 appertained to imports and the remainder to exports. The subjoined statement shows the Customs revenue during a recent twenty-two years. The figures include duty on salt, which is shown under salt revenue in the finance accounts:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1855-56	6,47,704	5,42,268	11,89,972
1856-57	2,18,448	5,34,044	12,52,487
1857-58	6,34,817	5,97,599	12,32,416
1858-59	8,82,162	4,29,528	13,11,690
1859-60	16,01,718	7,13,032	23,14,750
1860-61	17,22,730	8,56,733	25,79,463
1861-62	13,58,719	7,12,471	20,71,190
1862-63	10,91,820	6,79,258	17,71,078
1863-64	12,75,208	7,19,701	19,94,909
1864-65	11,17,875	6,67,463	17,85,338
1865-66	12,19,300	7,00,554	19,19,854
1866-67	12,77,508	5,22,978	18,00,486
1867-68	14,78,349	8,59,979	23,38,328
1868-69	15,87,846	9,98,574	25,86,420
1869-70	16,60,771	9,04,807	25,65,578
1870-71	17,92,452	10,36,887	28,29,339
1871-72	16,28,064	12,86,623	29,14,687
1872-73	16,76,300	10,93,188	27,69,488
1873-74	17,90,543	13,68,595	31,59,138
1874-75	17,21,233	12,32,260	29,53,493
1875-76	19,04,369	9,75,128	28,79,497
1876-77	19,24,422	5,38,494	24,62,916

The customs revenue has fluctuated considerably in the past, though the average of the later years of the series is decidedly higher than that of the earlier years. The fluctuations are in most cases referable to changes in the tariff. Prior to 1859 different rates of duty obtained in different Presidencies, and Act VII of 1859 prescribed for the first time a uniform tariff for the whole of India. The tariff duties originally fixed were very high often amounting to as much as 20 per cent. on the value, but subsequently there have been several reductions, and several articles which originally paid duty are now admitted free. Notwithstanding that the present duties are much lower than in 1859, the customs revenue has progressed owing to the great development of trade.

Ditto by articles.

The following comparative statement shows the customs revenue derived from the principal articles of import and export during a recent average year :—

Articles.	Exports. 1875-76.	Articles.	Imports. 1875-76.
	Rs.		Rs.
Rice not in the husk	6,22,596	Cotton—Piece-goods	4,92,830
Indigo	91,713	Spirits	3,32,225
Rice in the husk (paddy) ...	63,162	Cotton twist and yarn	2,94,905
Hides and skins	64,257	Wines and liquors	1,36,708
Seeds	56,231	Salt	1,20,289
Oils	30,364	Apparel	89,716
Cotton—Piece-goods	18,020	Metals	39,445
Spices	16,397	Railway materials	34,008
Grain and pulse—other sorts ...	12,304	Spices	34,371
All other articles not included in any of the above classes. ...	84	Provisions	28,449
		Hardware and cutlery	21,288
		Drugs and medicines	18,030
		Wool, manufacture of piece-goods.	12,940
		Liquors—Ale, beer, and porter ...	12,141
		Corals, real	8,814
		Glass, &c.	8,646
		Tobacco	7,287
		Stationery	6,728
		Arms, &c.	6,542
		Fruits and vegetables	6,183
		Leather manufacture	5,125
		Gums	3,920
		Oils	3,662
		Liquors, other sorts	1,514
		Tea	1,266
		All other articles	77,387
Total ...	9,75,128	Total ...	19,04,369

Ditto by districts.

The following statement shows the share of each district in the gross amount of customs collections on imports and exports :—

Districts.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.
	Rs.	Rs.
Fort St. George	14,03,169	1,14,836
Ganjam	1,446	22,946
Vizagapatam	4,460	1,308
Godavari	8,707	47,380
Kistna	467	14,493
Nellore	...	...
South Arcot	7,754	34,899
Tanjore	1,25,065	2,81,895
Madura	5,707	2,745
Tinnevelly	89,488	107
South Canara	1,55,196	15,416
Malabar	1,22,963	2,469
Total ...	19,24,422	5,38,494

Shipping, foreign trade.

The total number and tonnage of vessels which entered and cleared at all ports in this Presidency from and to ports beyond its limits with cargoes and in ballast for the seven years ending 1876-77 are shown below :—

Years.	Vessels.	Tons.
1870-71	6,874	956,492
1871-72	7,224	1,056,621
1872-73	7,135	1,071,552
1873-74	7,622	1,118,699
1874-75	7,396	1,218,402
1875-76	6,866	1,208,745
1876-77	7,244	1,243,965

The number of ships and the tonnage have of late steadily increased. The figures show also that vessels of larger size are now being employed in the trade. The number of steamers for seven years down to 1876-77 has been as follows. The increase in the number of steamers has been rapid and satisfactory :—

Years.	Steamers.	Tons.
1870-71	145	171,144
1871-72	168	193,737
1872-73	213	263,268
1873-74	204	270,024
1874-75	207	300,755
1875-76	260	355,066
1876-77	288	369,550

Ditto by districts.

The share of each district in the movements of shipping from and to foreign countries during a recent average year were as follow :—

Districts.		Vessels.	Tons.
Madras	Entered.	223	218,711
	Cleared.	211	188,775
Ganjam	Entered.	10	5,857
	Cleared.	49	41,908
Vizagapatam	Entered.	23	12,362
	Cleared.	53	38,701
Godavari	Entered.	24	12,184
	Cleared.	96	52,135
Kistna	Entered.	9	4,906
	Cleared.	20	8,489
Nellore	Entered.	1	167
	Cleared.	...	...
South Arcot	Entered.	142	17,608
	Cleared.	224	19,836
Tanjore	Entered.	1,233	119,814
	Cleared.	1,187	99,999
Madura	Entered.	1,192	126,549
	Cleared.	884	95,686
Tinnevelly	Entered.	555	42,101
	Cleared.	550	49,786
South Canara	Entered.	17	3,153
	Cleared.	15	3,045
Malabar	Entered.	66	18,813
	Cleared.	82	281,605
Total ...	Entered.	3,495	582,225
	Cleared.	3,371	626,520

In this year Tanjore and Madura show the largest number of vessels entered and cleared, but they consist almost wholly of native craft and dhonies plying from and to Ceylon. As regards steam

navigation, Fort St. George stands first and then follow Vizagapatam and Tinnevelly. The total shipping for Madras however shows a large decrease, fewer vessels having been employed in foreign trade during the year under review.

The nationalities of the shipping engaged in the trade with foreign countries are shown for an average year in the subjoined statement :— Nationalities of shipping.

		Sailing Vessels.		Steamers.	
		Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British	Entered	136	100,646	112	162,014
	Cleared	202	142,446	107	159,166
Foreign	Entered	53	21,777	21	19,502
	Cleared	118	53,562	11	10,823
British Indian	Entered	1,835	202,315	4	934
	Cleared	1,637	181,011	5	2,627
Native Craft	Entered	1,334	75,037	...	...
	Cleared	1,291	76,385	...	...
Total	Entered	3,358	399,775	137	182,450
	Cleared	3,248	453,904	123	172,616

The details of foreign vessels for the same year under their respective nationalities are as hereunder shown :—

	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Arab	9	1,322	11	1,397
French	43	25,616	57	26,897
Russian	1	971	...	...
Danish	1	866	1	866
Turkish	2	1,405	7	5,283
Swedish	2	1,464	1	781
American	7	6,642	9	10,378
Norwegian	...	...	1	1,353
Total	65	38,286	87	46,955

The total number and tonnage of vessels which entered and cleared at all the ports of the Madras Presidency from British Ports in other Presidencies and Foreign Ports in India with cargoes and in ballast during a recent seven years have been as follows. These figures are exclusive of the coasting trade within the Presidency :— Shipping coasting trade.

Years.	Vessels.	Tons.
1870-71	9,567	1,524,914
1871-72	10,443	1,607,092
1872-73	11,499	1,762,447
1873-74	10,576	1,874,472
1874-75	10,600	2,483,314
1875-76	10,908	3,097,235
1876-77	12,362	3,402,590

It will be seen that during recent years while the number of vessels remains almost stationary the tonnage has nearly doubled.

Ditto by districts.

The share of each district in the coasting trade has been as follows for an average year :—

		Vessels.	Tons.
Madras	Entered.	297	309,727
	Cleared.	285	349,745
Ganjam	Entered.	176	214,409
	Cleared.	205	239,494
Vizagapatam	Entered.	59	39,674
	Cleared.	247	247,429
Godavari	Entered.	200	180,953
	Cleared.	200	179,605
Kistna	Entered.	63	62,440
	Cleared.	84	77,349
Nellore	Entered.	4	445
	Cleared.	1	56
South Arcot	Entered.	79	5,349
	Cleared.	54	6,094
Tanjore	Entered.	200	151,645
	Cleared.	273	169,418
Madura	Entered.	56	8,601
	Cleared.	20	3,395
Tinnevelly	Entered.	165	139,663
	Cleared.	181	134,490
South Canara	Entered.	1,338	79,009
	Cleared.	1,162	79,587
Malabar	Entered.	2,760	222,564
	Cleared.	2,799	196,094
Total ...	Entered.	5,397	1,414,479
	Cleared.	5,511	1,682,756

The figures given here for Madras, Ganjam, Godavari, and Tanjore represent to a large extent steamers engaged in the transport of food-grains. The shipping for Malabar and South Canara consist almost wholly of sailing vessels which carry on an extensive trade with Bombay. Details of the nationality of the above vessels for the year 1875-76 is shown below :—

		Vessels.	Tons.
British	Entered.	797	992,161
	Cleared.	1,030	1,277,577
British Indian	Entered.	326	197,973
	Cleared.	281	191,697
Foreign	Entered.	354	56,599
	Cleared.	294	47,787
Native Craft	Entered.	3,920	167,746
	Cleared.	3,906	165,695
Total ...	Entered.	5,397	1,414,479
	Cleared.	5,111	1,682,756

Ditto, sailing and steam.

The shipping engaged in the coasting trade within the Presidency during the year 1875-76 is represented by the following figures :—

		1875-76.			
		Sailing.		Steam.	
		Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British Ports within the Presidency.	Entered.	15,144	652,103	858	1,039,534
	Cleared.	15,031	566,333	632	771,829

Except in Madras, where there is a separate establishment for compiling trade statistics under the orders of Sea Customs Collectors, the work of compilation in the outports of this Presidency is conducted by the same establishments as are employed in passing goods, collecting duty, &c. When applications are made for exporting goods or clearing those imported, the applicants are required to specify in their applications the quantities and values of the articles with all the particulars required for statistical purposes, and after the applications are passed and the prescribed duty, if any, collected, the information required is compiled from them, tabulated, and submitted to the Collectors daily, where the outports are situated at a distance from the Collector's head-quarters, and monthly where they are close by. From this information the returns required are compiled by the Collectors in certain forms prescribed for the purpose and forwarded to the Board of Revenue, where they are brought together for the whole Presidency and the statements forwarded to the Government of India every month. New forms of statements were brought into use in the year 1875. An important feature of the forms is that they are made to exhibit not only the external trade, but also the trade from port to port within the Presidency, which was not formerly shown in the returns. The following are the principal particulars recorded :— 1, the quantities and values of goods, and the value of gold and silver exported or imported; 2, the ports from and to which exports or imports are made; 3, the quantities left in bond and those cleared for home consumption; 4, the amount of duty collected and the articles upon which it is charged; 5, the amount of refunds and drawback allowed; 6, the number of vessels cleared and entered, distinguished into steam and sailing, in cargo, and in ballast; 7, the countries from which they enter or to which they clear; and 8, the nationalities and tonnage of vessels. The statistics are reviewed, and any impediments to the progress of trade noticed by the Board annually. In the districts the work is done chiefly by the ordinary establishments, but additions have lately been sanctioned for each district to aid in the work.

Arrangements for collecting and distributing sea-going trade statistics.

The matter given hitherto has dealt with sea-going trade. As regards inland trade the only statistics available are:—(1), the returns of exports and imports of goods passing to and from the Foreign European settlements of Yanam, Pondicherry, Karical, and Mahé; (2), the returns of trade with Travancore across the Tinnevelly frontier; and (3), the traffic returns of the Madras and South Indian Railways. The returns of trade with the Foreign European settlements are compiled by the special establishments maintained at the frontier stations for the purpose of levying duty, &c., and forwarded to the Collector's office, where they are put together by the ordinary

Inland trade.

establishments and submitted to the Board of Revenue in certain forms prescribed by the Government of India similar to those for sea-borne trade. These returns are tabulated in the Board's office and forwarded to the Government of India monthly. The returns of the trade between Travancore and Tinnevelly are obtained from the Travancore authorities and transmitted similarly to the Government of India. The returns of the traffic by the Madras Railway for each half year are received by the Board from the Consulting Engineer for Railways and transmitted to the local Government for information. Details of the traffic by the South Indian Railway are furnished to the Board by the Consulting Engineer for each quarter. A certain amount of additional information of a standing nature is obtainable from the 1871 census classification and returns of the different branches of trade. The particular branches of trade are entered in the census schedules under eighty-one headings. The great bulk of traders are described simply as "Merchants" (234,531) and "Bazaar-men" (146,182). The following are a few of the chief trading occupations specified: "Arrack-sellers" (14,146), "Bangle-sellers" (7,908), "Fish-sellers" (47,555), "Cloth-merchants," "Contractors," "Cattle-dealers," "Bankers and Money-lenders," "Oil-mongers," "Salt-Merchants," "Indigo-dealers," "Leather-Merchants," "Wood and Charcoal dealers." A great majority of the "Merchants" and "Bazaar-men" are general dealers, and their shops supply the usual requirements of the community.

Number of traders.

According to the census of 1871 there are 534,662 persons engaged in trade, or 3·4 per cent. of the male population. All castes and classes of the people are traders, though certain branches of trade remain chiefly in the hands of the Chetty or trading castes. Traders are most numerous in the Northern Coast districts and the town of Madras and fewest in South Arcot, Salem, and Trichinopoly. The proportions vary from 7·8 per cent. of the male population in Madras to 2·2 per cent. in South Arcot. The chief trading caste is the Chetty, of whose males 42 per cent. are engaged in trade. Next are the Fisherman and Toddy-drawing castes, who have respectively about 3 and 5 per cent. of their numbers occupied in trade and commerce. The mixed class of Mussulmans, known as Lubbays and Mapilahs, are petty traders to a large extent, and indeed all the divisions of Mahomedans seem to furnish a larger number of traders than the Hindus.

Manufactures.

About manufactures little is known officially except from the 1871 census returns. In 1871 there were 540,061 males engaged in the manufacture of textile fabrics and dress, of whom nearly three-fourths were weavers. About 113,000 persons are "shoe-makers," or workers in skin and leather; 25,000 were engaged in cleaning and ginning cotton for export; and about 15,000 were tailors. The great bulk of the people of

India do not indulge in clothing that requires the aid of a tailor to shape and sew it, but some of the better classes, of both sexes, wear cut jackets; hence the small number of tailors, compared with the numbers engaged in making shoes, or coverings for the feet. The produce of the Indian looms is not exported now to any great extent. In former days the chintzes of Masulipatam enjoyed a great celebrity abroad. They were celebrated for the freshness and permanency of their dyes, the colors being brighter after washing than before. There is still a small demand for these articles in Burmah, the Straits, and Persian Gulf; but Manchester goods have nearly beaten the Indian exporter out of the field. The home-made cloths, however, still hold their own in competition with British goods. The working in metals is almost the exclusive employment of certain divisions of the artizan castes. Of a total of 126,117 males engaged in labor connected with metals, 115,954, or 91·9 per cent. of the whole, are members of the Hindu artizan castes. The metal workers form 0·8 per cent. of the entire male population. Blacksmiths or iron-workers were in 1871 about 40,566 in number; gold and silver smiths 70,075; brass and copper smiths about 15,000; and workers in tin about 200. There are a few other occupations under this heading, as "engravers," "platers," "wire-drawers," "knife-makers," &c., but the numbers so engaged are insignificant. The simplicity of Hindu domestic life is especially noticeable in the furniture of their houses. As a rule, no house contains either chairs, raised seats or tables, and the people sit and sleep either on the bare floors, or on mats or carpets. Only 71,805 persons are returned as engaged in occupations connected with the manufacture of household goods, or 0·5 per cent. of the males. Of this number, upwards of 50,000 manufacture earthenware pots for holding water and cooking food, while about 16,000 weave baskets and rattan work. In some districts the people use cots of wicker work to sleep upon. The weaving of mats gives employment to upwards of 3,000 persons.

PUBLIC WORKS—GENERAL REMARKS.

Constitution of department.

As at present constituted, there are three executive branches of the Public Works Department, Roads and Buildings, Irrigation and Railways; each having a Chief Engineer as its responsible executive head. The Chief Engineers perform the secretariat work of their respective branches, and the senior, who is gazetted as Secretary to Government, Public Works Department, takes in addition to his ordinary duties the work of the General branch, which includes the promotion,

posting, &c., of the members of the executive establishment for the whole department. Each of the two junior Chief Engineers is designated and gazetted as Joint Secretary for the particular executive branch of which he has charge.

Establishment under Roads and Buildings and Irrigation.

For the Roads and Buildings and Irrigation branches of the department there is a distinct division of the establishment into Executive and Accounts, the former of which deals with the preparation of designs and estimates, and with the supervision and execution of the works, and the latter with the control and audit of the expenditure incurred. The executive division is subdivided into (1) Engineer Establishment, (2) Upper Subordinate Establishment, (3) Lower Subordinate Establishment, (4) Office Establishment, (5), Petty Establishment. The Accounts Branch is divided into the Control Establishment corresponding to the "Engineer" Establishment, and the "Accountant" Establishment of trained accountants corresponding to the Upper Subordinate Establishment, of the Executive Branch.

—Engineer establishment.

The Engineer Establishment is composed of officers of Royal Engineers (both of the old local cadres and the home corps), Civil Engineers of the Royal Civil Engineering College, Cooper's Hill, Engineers selected from the profession at home (termed Stanley Engineers), passed students (European or Native) of the Civil Engineering College, Madras, and Engineers promoted from the Upper Subordinate grades, including Military subordinates who by seniority have been granted honorary commissions in the army. This portion of the establishment is classed and graded as follows:—(1), Chief Engineers in three classes; (2), Superintending Engineers; one class in three grades; (3), Executive Engineers; one class in four grades; (4), Assistant Engineers; one class in three grades. The duties of a Chief Engineer as such are to control the general operations of his particular branch, receive reports from the Superintending Engineers, check designs and projects above a specific amount, and devise projects for effecting the objects suggested to him by Government. In the performance of these duties, he is assisted in the Central Office by a Deputy Chief Engineer (usually of the grade of Executive Engineer, who is also Under Secretary to Government,) and by the Superintending Engineers who direct the whole of the executive operations carried on within the circle assigned to each. There are five such circles in the Presidency; each under a Superintending Engineer who disposes of all the departmental business for both the Roads and Buildings and the Irrigation Branch, under the powers confided to him by the Code. These officers in their turn are aided by the several Executive Engineers, who, with the Assistant Engineers, carry out all the operations in both the above mentioned

branches, the functions of officers of these classes not being separated in Madras as in other presidencies and provinces of the Empire. Including the works in Madras (classed as the Presidency Division) and those under charge of the Consulting Architect to Government, there are in all 39 Executive Divisions, only a few of which are conterminous with the Civil Collectorates, as shown by the following table:—

Superintending Engineers' Circles.	Executive Divisions included.	Area in Square Miles.	Area of each Circle in Square Miles.	Corresponding Civil Collectorate.
First Circle ...	Ganjam	8,634	29,573½	Ganjam.
	Godavari Eastern and Central Delta.	1,259½		Godavari (part).
	Godavari Western Delta ...	1,088		Godavari (part).
	Guntoor	5,586½		Kistna (part).
	Kistna Eastern Delta ...	1,553½		Kistna (part).
	Kistna Western Delta ...	1,247½		Kistna (part).
	Rajahmundry	5,188½		Godavari (part).
	Vizagapatam	5,016½		Vizagapatam.
Second Circle	Anantapur	4,700½	34,440½	Bellary (part).
	Bellary	6,350½		Bellary (part).
	Cuddapah	4,540		Cuddapah (part).
	Kurnool	7,003½		Kurnool.
	Madhanapalle	3,764		Cuddapah (part).
	Nellore	3,092		Nellore (part).
	Ongole	4,990½		Nellore (part).
Third Circle.	Consulting Architect ...	...	15,150½	
	Bangalore	11		
	Buckingham Canal ...	...		Chingleput and Madras.
	Chingleput	3,139½		Chingleput (part).
	Chittur	4,313½		North Arcot (part).
	Cuddalore	2,597½		South Arcot (part).
	Presidency	27		Madras.
	Tindivanam	2,346½		South Arcot (part).
	Vellore	2,715½		North Arcot (part).
Fourth Circle.	Calicut	2,996	24,264½	Malabar.
	Canara	3,751		South Canara.
	Coimbatore	5,519		Coimbatore (part).
	Nilgiri	980		Nilgiri.
	Oosoor	3,630		Salem (part).
	Erode	2,752		Coimbatore (part).
	Salem	3,974		Salem (part).
	Wynad	2,662½		Malabar and Nilgiri.
Fifth Circle.	Dindigul	4,038	20,455½	Madura (part).
	Madura	4,381½		Madura (part).
	Negapatam	1,825		Tanjore (part).
	Satur	2,100		Tinnevelly.
	Tanjore	1,667½		Tanjore (part).
	Tinnevelly	1,844		Tinnevelly.
	Trichinopoly	3,500½		Trichinopoly.

—Upper Subordinate Establishment.

The Upper Subordinate Establishment consists of men appointed from the Non-commissioned officers and soldiers of Her Majesty's Army in India; or from Civilians, European or Native, who have obtained the required certificates from the Madras Civil Engineering College; or, in the case of Royal Engineer soldiers, that of the Commandant of Sappers and Miners; or again from men who, as Mechanical Engineers, &c., have a thorough practical knowledge and experience in some useful branch of engineering. The members of this establishment have either charge of a sub-division of works, under the immediate orders of the Executive or Assistant Engineers, or are

assigned other specific duties, not clerical, in connection with the execution of works or with the investigation of projects.

—Lower Subordinate Establishment.

The Lower Subordinate Establishment consists of natives who have a sufficient knowledge of ordinary building, and such acquaintance with plan drawing and surveying, as will enable them to set out and supervise the construction of the minor class of works in the department.

—Petty and office establishments.

The Petty Establishment consists of store-keepers, artizans, guards and lascars, while under the Office Establishment are included clerks, draughtsmen, messengers and others.

—Further particulars as to executive establishments.

The Public Works Executive Establishment maintained in the districts is employed indifferently in the general execution of all the works entrusted to the department, the service of each officer being utilised in the best way practicable in carrying out the works, irrespective of the kind of work to be carried out, or the service for which the work is required. There is a small special establishment maintained in connection with Irrigation works, namely the Navigation and Water Regulation Establishment, the cost of which is a charge to Imperial Irrigation Funds. This extra establishment is employed in the distribution of water for irrigation and the regulation of the supply in canals and channels, the control of the canal navigation and the record of traffic, the execution of petty repairs and general conservancy of canals, channels, and embankments. A grant for temporary establishments employed on surveys has also been made of late years. These surveys are required for the purpose of framing the projects for the completion of the works of the Godavari, Kistna, and Pennair Delta systems, and also for supplying data for the grouping of other works of irrigation and their comprehensive treatment in the way of reform, reconstruction, or repair.

—Account establishment.

In the Account Establishment, the Examiners, who form a general service under the direct orders of the Government of India, are recruited from much the same classes as already explained under the Engineer Establishment. The duty of the Examiner is to control the operations of the Accounts Establishment in the Presidency, to audit the accounts of receipts and expenditure submitted by the Executive Engineers and other disbursing officers of the department, and subsequently to compile these accounts into one general account for the Presidency, to be submitted to the Accountant-General to the Government of India for incorporation in the general accounts of the Empire. The Examiner further assists the Secretariat in respect to any financial business referred to him for opinion or disposal. In these duties he is aided by two Deputies, one of which has special charge of the accounts of the Buildings and Roads and General

Branches, and the other of those of the Irrigation Branch. The establishment of Accountants is composed of both Europeans and Natives, who have passed the prescribed accounts tests at one of the Civil Engineering Colleges. This establishment, the members of which, unless specially electing for local service, are liable to be transferred to any part of India, is employed indifferently, either in the Central Office at Madras in auditing and compiling the divisional accounts, or at the head-quarters of the several divisions in preparing these accounts from the cash books and other initial records maintained by the Executive disbursing officers.

Establishments under Railway Branch.

In the Railway Branch also there is a division into Executive and Accounts; but inasmuch as all the railways in this Presidency have been constructed through the agency of Guaranteed Companies, not by the direct agency of the State, the Executive staff has hitherto consisted only of the Chief Engineer who is styled Consulting Engineer for Railways, with two Deputy Consulting Engineers who are generally taken from the class of Executive Engineers. The control over the proceedings of the Guaranteed Railway Companies, which is secured to the State in virtue of the contract agreements, is exercised through the Consulting Engineer, who is also the sole channel of communication between the Madras Government and the Companies. The nature and extent of the control vested in the State are subsequently explained. As already mentioned, the Consulting Engineer for Railways is also Joint Secretary to Government in the Railway Branch. The accounts of the Railway Branch are in charge of an officer, styled Examiner of Railway Accounts, by whom all the expenditure of the Guaranteed Companies is examined and audited on behalf of Government. The Examiner of Railway Accounts is assisted by a Deputy Examiner, who is stationed at Negapatam, the head-quarters of the South Indian Railway.

Nature of work done.

The Public Works Department deals with all engineering works undertaken by the State, the construction or repair of which has to be carried out under professional superintendence. Detailed designs and estimates for public buildings and other engineering works required by any other department of Government are drawn up by this department, and, after the general arrangements proposed have been approved of, the Public Works Department carries out the works as soon as funds are made available to meet the estimated expenditure. The Public Works Department is thus called upon to plan and execute works for the Government of India; for the Provincial Government; for the various Local Fund Boards; for the Board of Revenue and the Heads of other Departments, as Trustees of certain special funds which they administèr; for the Court of Wards; and occasionally for Municipal

Corporations. In the absence of State Railways it is evident that there are works to be executed only in the "Buildings and Roads" and "Irrigation" Secretariat divisions.

Government of India works.

For the Imperial Government the Public Works Department undertakes the construction and maintenance of the following works. The following classification is the technical one used for statistical purposes:—

(*a.*) *Irrigation*, including all works in connection with Irrigation and River Conservancy.

(*b.*) *Imperial* proper subdivided into

(1.) *Military*, including all works connected with the Army, such as Fortifications, Barracks, Commissariat and Ordnance buildings, Military rest-houses, and Cantonment roads.

(2.) *Other Services*, including all buildings and other works connected with the Postal, Telegraph, and Salt Departments, together with such Mining operations, Light-houses and other public improvements as may be considered to be rather of Imperial than of local interest.

To meet the expenditure on these heads, grants are yearly made by the Imperial Government from the ordinary revenues of India and also from loans raised by the Imperial Government for the purpose of constructing reproductive works. By far the most important works carried out by the Public Works Department on behalf of the Government of India are those connected with irrigation and the conservancy of rivers.

Works for Provincial Government.

For the Provincial Government, the Public Works Department constructs and repairs all buildings in connection with the Judicial, Revenue, Customs, Police, Educational, Jail, Medical, Marine, and Ecclesiastical Departments, as well as all navigable canals not forming part of a system of irrigation channels. To these may be added a few roads; all works connected with the improvements, water-supply, and drainage of towns other than Municipalities; all works connected with harbours; and all works connected with the light-houses required for the purely local coasting trade. The expenditure from Provincial Funds on public works in a great measure takes the form of grants-in-aid to the several Local Fund Boards, which have charge of all the roads in the Presidency, with the exception of a few roads leading up to the hills, considered to be of Provincial rather than of local importance.

Local and special works.

The work executed by the Public Works Department on behalf of the Local Fund Boards consists chiefly of the construction and repair

of roads, and occasionally of buildings in connection with Hospitals, Dispensaries, School-houses, and Travellers' Bungalows. The expenditure on these works is met by grants from the Local Funds raised under Act IV of 1871, supplemented by the grants-in-aid from Provincial Funds before referred to. Sums to defray the cost of similar works are further allotted to the Public Works Department by the Board of Revenue from special funds administered by the Board itself, such as the Canal and Ferry Fund, Jungle Conservancy Fund, Pound Fund, Irrigation Cess, and other Funds, and also by the Court of Wards from the revenues of the estates under their charge. The Public Works Department also execute various works the cost of which is defrayed from the Port, Educational, Convict Labor, and Police Lodging Funds.

Execution of works.

The execution of the Public Works in this Presidency is for the most part carried out either by daily labor under the direction of the officers of the department, or by petty contract under the same supervision. A few works, however, after being designed by the Public Works Department, are carried out under the supervision of officers of the departments directly concerned with the work, special Government sanction being necessary for this in nearly all cases. The employment of large contractors, and especially of European contractors, in the execution of works in this Presidency is extremely rare. The progress of a Public Work from initiation to completion, say of a building required for the Revenue Department, is as follows. When the necessity for the work has been recognized by Government, the District Engineer is called on to submit a plan and estimate, usually through the Collector. When this is sanctioned by Government the work is placed on the list of those which are ready to be carried out when funds are provided. Funds are provided by the Government by sanctioning a specific appropriation for the work in some year's Public Works budget. For the commencement of this work after the funds are provided the sanction of Government is not again necessary. Before beginning the work it will as a rule be necessary for the land to be made over to the Public Works Department; this is done by the Collector, who, if necessary, takes due steps for acquiring the land. The District Engineer then entrusts the work to the Executive Engineer or Range Officer, and the latter either collects labor and materials and builds himself, or gives out the work on petty contract. Funds are drawn by the Executive Engineer from the treasury by cheque on his public account kept there. When this work is done the Collector countersigns a "completion certificate," which has been prepared by the Executive Officer, and the Public Works Department are relieved of responsibility. Repairs to buildings once constructed are made, as

occasion requires, by the Public Works Department, under the head of "Repairs" in their budget.

Establishment charges.

Apart from the cost of the works themselves, which includes extra or temporary establishment beginning and ending with the work and the materials necessary for the work, there are charges to be met from permanent establishment. The work of the latter consists in making plans, in supervising execution by permanent hands, and in accounting and in auditing, and the charges for this are called "Establishment charges." The cost of the whole establishment of the Railway Branch is borne by Imperial Funds. That of the rest of the general establishment is divided arbitrarily between the several heads of service. Imperial and Irrigation Funds are charged in each year for Public Works supervision 25 per cent. on the outlay on works during the year or on the budget grants, whichever may be the greater. Local and Special Funds are charged 25 per cent. on the actual expenditure. The cost of any establishment specially entertained for particular investigations is charged to the Head of Service concerned. The balance of the establishment charges, whatever it may amount to, is charged to Provincial Funds. When works are carried out by departments other than the Public Works Department, the latter find the plans and audit the expenditure; but no charge is made for establishment on this account.

Tools and Plant charges.

Under the Public Works system of account, the estimate drawn up for a work does not include the cost of the tools and plant required for its execution; all charges on account of tools and plant being carried to a separate head. At present the cost of the tools and plant required for the execution of the works is charged against the different heads of service, Imperial Irrigation, Provincial, &c., according to the works for which they were intended to be principally used. There is, however, some reason to believe that this arrangement practically leads to an incorrect distribution, and proposals are now under consideration for dividing off the charges for Tools and Plant arbitrarily in much the same manner as those for establishments.

Workshops.

In connection with the Public Works Department are the Workshops at Madras, Dowlaishweram, and Bezwada. These institutions are self-supporting; the prices charged on the work turned out being sufficient to meet all charges for labor, materials, and supervision, as well as for interest on capital and depreciation of the block.

PUBLIC WORKS—BUILDINGS AND ROADS BRANCH.

Nature of the division.

The Buildings and Roads division in this Presidency includes both of what are known in the Northern Provinces of India as the Buildings and Roads division and the Military Works division. It deals with all questions and works not special to the Irrigation branch, and comprises therefore Military Works; buildings, &c., connected with the Post Office, Revenue, Telegraph, Ecclesiastical, Educational, and Judicial Departments; and roads, bridges, navigable canals, river improvements, accommodation for travellers, light-houses, mines, and manufactures. Following the classification according to account heads given in the preceding general remarks works executed under this division fall necessarily under one or other of the heads given at foot. All roads, except those in military cantonments, come under Local, though grants-in-aid are made from Provincial Funds in some cases, especially for the ghât roads leading to the hills which overlook the Western coast. The financial control of the funds from which the cost of construction and maintenance of roads is met, is in the hands of the Local Fund Boards, subject to the supervision of the Board of Revenue and of Government in the Financial Department; but the actual execution of work, except in the case of petty repairs to village roads is for the most part entrusted to the Public Works Department, a charge of 25 per cent. being made for supervision, preparation of designs and estimates, and audit of expenditure.

Imperial.	*Provincial.*	*Local and Special.*
Military—	Civil Buildings.	Communications.
Fortifications.	Communications.	Civil Buildings.
Military Buildings.	Miscellaneous Public Improvement.	Miscellaneous Public Improvement.
Military Roads.		
Miscellaneous.		
Other Services—		
Civil Buildings.		
Communications.		
Miscellaneous Public Improvement.		

PUBLIC WORKS—IRRIGATION BRANCH.

Nature of the division.

The Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department deals with Irrigation works and with connected Agricultural works such as river conservancy, river embankments, drainage, &c. It was first

constituted as a subordinate branch of the Public Works Department, in the year 1867, and early in 1877 it was made a distinct and independent branch in direct communication with Government.

Classification of works.

The classification of Irrigation and Agricultural Works has been subjected to several modifications. That at present in force was prescribed by the Government of India in December 1878. This classification relates to (A), Productive Public Works, heretofore designated as Extraordinary; (B), Irrigation Works, not classed as Productive Public Works, for which Capital and Revenue accounts are kept; (C), Agricultural and Irrigation Works for which Capital and Revenue accounts are not kept. Productive Public Works may be constructed partly from Loan Funds and partly from Ordinary revenues. In the former case the fund head is termed Capital Productive Public Works. All other charges for Productive Public Works are treated under the head Ordinary Productive Public Works which includes—(*a*) Expenses of working and maintenance. (*b*) Interest on Capital cost, charged under the head of Capital Productive Public Works. It will be seen that the adjective Productive is, in this classification, used in a special sense. Only the following Irrigation Works are now classed as Productive Public Works, viz. :—Godavari Delta System ; Kistna Delta System ; Pennair Anicut System ; Cauvery Delta System ; Srivaikuntham Anicut System. The following are classed as Irrigation Works for which Capital and Revenue accounts are kept—Chembrumbakam Tank ; Palar Anicut System ; Pelandorai Anicut. All other Agricultural and Irrigation works are classed under head (3) above mentioned, or as those for which Capital and Revenue accounts are not kept. Many of these are of very considerable importance individually, and for such, under the orders of the Madras Government, simpler accounts have been ordered to be maintained, which will afford all the information necessary for administrative purposes and for the determination of their financial value. The rest are either irrigation (revenue yielding) works of small importance individually, though important collectively, and are to be dealt with in the groups or classes to which they belong, viz. :—(*a*), Irrigation from rivers and streams including the tanks thus supplied ; (*b*), groups of Tanks (Rainfed) ; (*c*), Isolated Tanks (Rainfed) ; (*d*), Miscellaneous : or they are Agricultural Works which do not yield revenue, but which are necessary to the safety or prosperity of agriculture, such as river conservancy, river embankments, drainage, &c. All maintenance charges of completed works are met from the Ordinary revenues. There are thus in the Irrigation branch six fund heads, viz. :—(1), Capital Productive Public Works (Loan Capital) ; (2), Ordinary Public Works (Capital Outlay on Productive Public Works, charged against Ordinary Revenues) ; (3), Ordinary

Productive Public Works with two sub-heads or divisions—(*a*), Expenses of working and maintenance; (*b*), Interest; (4), Capital, (5), Revenue, appertaining to Irrigation Works (other than Productive Public Works) for which Capital and Revenue accounts are kept; (6), Agricultural and Irrigation Works, for which Capital and Revenue accounts are not kept, with divisions for works outlay under—(*a*), Original Works; (*b*), Repairs corresponding with construction and maintenance. The notice of works in the yearly Public Works administration reports follows the six fund heads, as being the only arrangement practicable. The arrangement however is not so satisfactory under Irrigation as it is under Buildings and Roads, for whereas in the latter division a single work is always carried out from a single fund, in the former the same work is frequently carried out from different funds.

Irrigation Systems—classed as productive public works—Godavari Delta System.

The Godavari Anicut or weir was commenced in 1844-45 for the supply of the canals of the delta, at the head of which it stands. The river drains an area of about 119,570 square miles. The crest of the anicut is at 38 feet above mean sea level, and it is situated at about 33 miles from the coast. The length of the crest of the weir on the line of which the river is divided into four branches is 3,938 yards. The greatest depth of water which has passed over the weir is 15·25 feet. A short distance below the river forms two main branches with the Central Delta between them. There are three main canals—that of the Eastern Delta has a bottom width of 184½ feet, and when carrying a full supply the water is 8·21 feet deep. That of the Central Delta will be 114 feet wide at bottom with a depth of 7 feet of water. That of the Western Delta varies considerably in width, but where the water is carried in a single channel the bottom width is about 225 feet, and the full depth of water 10 feet. All the principal canals of the delta are navigable. The length of canals available for navigation is 456 miles, and many of them have during the last eight years been much improved by the construction of additional locks and the reduction of the current. The total area of the delta is about 2,023 square miles. Extensive drainage works have been undertaken since 1870 in the Eastern and Western Deltas. This system irrigated, in 1876-77, 541,892 acres and the increased revenue due thereto amounted to Rs. 16,17,965. The ultimate area of irrigation will be about 610,000 acres. The following statement shows the length of navigable canals open to date :—

Names of Canals.	Proposed Total Length.		Navigable. Up to 1877-78 inclusive.	
	MS.	CHS.	MS.	CHS.
Eastern Delta.				
Main Canal	4	12	4	12
Samulcotta Canal	34	28	34	28
Cocanada Canal	27	48	27	48
Bank Canal	38	40	29	50
Coringa Canal	24	37	24	37
Injeram Canal	11	19	11	9
Mundapetta Canal	13	35	13	35
Total ...	153	49	144	59
Central Delta.				
Main Canal	8	0	8	0
Gunnaram Canal	44	0	28	0
Bank Canal including Billacurru junction ...	45	0	39	0
Amalapur Canal	32	0	26	0
Bendamurlunka Canal	14	0	2	0
Total ...	143	0	103	0
Western Delta.				
Main Canal	6	5	6	5
Kakarapurru Canal	10	29	10	29
Nursapur Canal	29	67	29	67
Bank Canal	25	62	25	40
Gostanuddy and Velpur	28	35	28	35
Ellore Canal	40	27	40	27
Junction Canal	3	43	3	43
Venkiah and Weyyeru	29	74	29	74
Undi Canal	15	66	15	66
Attili Canal	15	75	15	75
Mukkamala	2	32	2	32
Total ...	208	35	208	13
Grand Total ...	505	4	455	72

—Kistna Delta system.

The Kistna Anicut or weir was commenced in 1852. The site chosen is at a point where the river is much narrower than its normal width, its channel being there confined by rocky hills on either bank. The length of the crest of this weir is 1,280 yards. In 1874 the river rose to 19·42 feet above the weir crest, and this was the highest fresh which has occurred since the anicut was built. The drainage basin has an area of about 110,000 square miles, and the river divides the delta into two parts. The Eastern Delta Main Canal will, when completed, have a bottom width of 200 feet, and a depth of water of 8¼ feet. The main canal of the Western Delta will have a bottom width of 230 feet, and a depth of water of 8 feet. The principal canals are navigable and their length so available is at present about 267 miles. Addition will hereafter be made to the extent of navigation by the extension or improvement of the canals. The area of the two parts of the delta is, together, 2,110 square miles, the irrigated area was, in 1876-77, 247,998 acres, on which the water tax was Rupees 6,79,932 and the land assessment Rupees 3,04,713. The ultimate area of irrigation, as provided for in the completion estimates, is 470,000

acres. The subjoined statement shows the length of navigable canals open to the date noted:—

Names of Canals.	Proposed Total Length.		Navigable. Up to 1877-78 inclusive.	
Eastern Delta.	MS.	CHS.	MS.	CHS.
Main Canal	0	·45	.....	
Ellore Canal	40	0	40	0
Budameru	37	0	37	0
Masulipatam Canal	49	·13	49	·13
Pulleru between Head Sluice and Cowtaram	26	·62	17	·62
Pamurru Junction Canal	0	·40	0	·40
Bantumilly Canal	14	·20	14	·20
Polarázkodu Canal	16	50	16	·50
	184	·71	158	·71
Western Delta.				
Main Canal	13	·0	13	·0
Nizampatam Canal	27	78	27	·78
Bank Canal	45	60	21	0
Commamoor Canal	57	40	46	30
	144	38	108	·28
Grand Total	329	·29	267	·19

—Pennair Anicut system.

The Pennair Delta embraces a comparatively small area; on the north side of the river there are from 200 to 220 square miles of country in which there are numerous tanks which receive a more or less reliable supply of water, and it has been proposed to improve radically the arrangements; but hitherto the irrigation is much in the state in which it was found when the district came into British possession. On the south side the area is 150 square miles, and has been provided with a fairly complete system of irrigation. The anicut or weir across the river was commenced in 1855, and was, until 1875, 527 yards in length, or about one-third of the normal width of the river. It has been lengthened to 677 yards to lessen its liability to damage. In the flood of 1874, 18·37 feet of water passed over the crest, and much of the country on both sides of the river was inundated. The area of the basin drained by the river is about 20,000 square miles. The works were orginally designed to irrigate 64,000 acres or two-thirds of the area commanded. The greatest area yet irrigated was 58,159 acres in 1870-71, and the average may be taken as 55,000 acres with a revenue (consolidated assessment) of Rupees two lakhs, of which nearly one half is increase due to the works.

—Cauvery Delta system.

The Cauvery Delta has the largest area of irrigation in Madras. About 10 miles west of Trichinopoly, the Agunda Cauvery divides at the head of the island of Seringham into two branches, the Coleroon and the Cauvery. Across the Coleroon a weir called the Upper Anicut was constructed about the year 1834, and was one of the earliest of the

great works planned by Sir Arthur Cotton. Its effect on the Delta has been very great, and the benefits conferred on the Government and on the people of the Tanjore District have more than fulfilled the anticipations of the projector, by securing a reliable supply of water, and obviating the necessity for collecting annually or in some seasons several times during the year several thousands of the cultivators to form temporary works for the diversion of water down the Cauvery. The head of this latter river is 1,950 feet wide, and the bed level is regulated by a dam. After running for some 16 or 17 miles, the Cauvery divides into two principal rivers, the Cauvery and the Vennar, which irrigate nearly equal areas, and which give off numerous branches: at all the principal bifurcations regulating works have during the last few years been constructed. The Cauvery was formerly connected with the Coleroon at the east end of the island of Seringham, some 20 miles from the Upper Coleroon Anicut, and across this channel a work called the Grand Anicut was built by the Natives many years before the province of Tanjore was ceded to the British. This was the first step towards the improvement of the Delta, and its effect must have been great. In the Northern Deltas the whole of the distribution of water has been artificially carried out by canals; but in the Cauvery Delta the principal distribution was effected naturally by the numerous branches thrown off by the Cauvery and Vennar; and from these branches innumerable small channels have been cut to convey water to the lands of the Delta villages. The chief work to be done under the British Government was to render the water-supply more reliable, and this was secured by the upper anicut; secondly, to regulate the distribution by the principal rivers towards which something was done formerly by the regulating works at the head of the Vennar, and much more during the last few years by the construction of regulators at the heads of all the principal branches. It is intended to bring the Cauvery under complete regulation and to provide a new head for the Vennar at the grand anicut, so that the delta may be entirely protected from excessive floods and that water, which cannot with safety be carried by the various rivers of the delta, may be passed over the grand anicut, into the Coleroon, and thus got rid of. Much useful work has been done in the delta towards regulating the widths of the rivers and improving their alignment. Formerly the river-beds varied greatly in width, and the result was that the deep channels changed from year to year, the tendency being to cut away the banks in some places, and to deposit the eroded material elsewhere. The parts of river-beds in excess of the width required have been planted up with a tall grass, called nanel or durbah; this checks the current, causes a deposit of the silt held in suspension, and so gradually reclaims land in a very simple, effectual, and inexpen-

sive manner. The Cauvery rises in the Western Ghâts or mountains, and drains an area of about 28,000 square miles. The area of its delta is about 2,760 square miles. The system irrigates about 835,208 acres with a revenue of Rupees 35,30,336. In this Delta the assessment is consolidated and measures are being taken for determining arbitrarily the amount of revenue which may be taken to represent the value of the water.

—Strivaikuntham Anicut system.

The Strivaikuntham anicut system is of considerable importance. The anicut crosses the Tambrapoorney river in Tinnevelly about 16 miles from the sea, and is the lowest weir on the river. It provides for the extension of irrigation on both sides of the river, the channels leading from which not only irrigate the land directly but furnish supplies to existing tanks, in which the water is stored for use during the intervals between the freshes. The original estimate of the extent of land to be brought under cultivation was 32,000 acres. The work is approaching completion.

Irrigation systems for which capital and revenue accounts are kept, but which are not classed as productive public works.

—Chembrumbakam Tank system.

The Chembrumbakam tank is a large reservoir about 14 miles from Madras, which has been formed by enlarging an old native tank. Before its enlargement it held from 1,501* to 2,101 millions of cubic feet, and had an area of 4,648 acres, or 7·26 square miles. Its present capacity is 2,779 millions of cubic feet, and the water-spread is 5,729 acres, or 8·95 square miles. The old sources of supply have been rendered to a greater extent available by enlarging the supply-channel and its head sluice. It is not yet known whether the extension of irrigation will correspond with the expectations entertained when the scheme was sanctioned. Originally it was intended to make the tank large enough to hold 5,315 millions of cubic feet, but a reconsideration of the water-supply available, and the desirability of avoiding the submergence of valuable land, resulted in the alteration of the project to the dimensions above noted.

—Pelandorai Anicut system.

The Pelandorai anicut gives its name to a system of irrigation in South Arcot. The anicut is built across the Vellar River at the site which gives the work its name, and a supply-channel from the right bank regulated by a head sluice and connected with subsidiary channels conveys water for the irrigation of fifty villages in the Chelambaram Taluk. The works were commenced in 1870, and are, with the exception of additional storage in tanks, practically completed.

—Palar Anicut system.

The Palar anicut is thrown across the river of that name near the town of Arcot in the North Arcot District. It is 2,600 feet long, and is the head of a system which irrigates about 37,672 acres. Channels provided with head sluices take off on either bank above the anicut.

* Ordinary.

The original work was constructed about the year 1855. It was damaged and partly carried away in 1874, and has since been restored. Until recently the channels were, with the exception of the new heads, which were made to connect them with the anicut, much in the same state as when the country came under British rule, but during the famine (1878) advantage was taken of the necessity of affording employment to the laboring population, and extensive improvements were carried out to several of the old channels on the north or left bank of the river.

Other Irrigation and agricultural works.

Until the new classification was introduced all Irrigation Works were placed under one or other of the two following classes:—1, Works for which Capital and Revenue accounts were kept; 2, Ordinary Agricultural Works for which no such accounts were maintained. Now the general classification is—1, Productive Public Works; 2, Irrigation and Navigation Works. (*a*) Works for which Capital and Revenue accounts are kept. (*b*) Works for which Capital and Reveuue accounts are not kept. 3, Agricultural Works. The term Irrigation and Navigation Works is not well suited to the works to which it is applied in Madras, for in no case is there any navigation in connection with them, and indeed it is found only in the Godavari and Kistna Delta systems. The second class is therefore exclusively irrigation. The great bulk of the irrigation works belongs to the second division of class (2). These works vary greatly in character and importance. Those belonging to the sub-division, irrigation from rivers and streams, are much the most valuable, but the rainfed tanks collectively, and in a few cases individually, exercise an important influence upon the prosperity of the agricultural community, and their efficiency and security have during the last 6 or 7 years engaged much of the attention of the irrigation department. It has long been understood that, in order to secure a comprehensive treatment of these numerous works, it is necessary that they should be grouped into systems hydrographically connected; measures have accordingly been taken towards this end. It is obvious that the whole of them can be referred to various natural drainage lines and ultimately to river basins. When this has been done and the particulars of water-supply, revenue and outlay are properly recorded, it will be possible to measure with some accuracy the relation of returns to outlay, and to apportion expenditure with due regard to economy and on sound principles. The following statement gives the area of irrigated lands, and the revenue (land assessment and water tax) therefrom obtained, for the whole Presidency:—

Districts.	Irrigated Area and Revenue.		Districts.	Irrigated Area and Revenue.	
	Area.	Revenue.		Area.	Revenue.
	ACRES.	RS.		ACRES.	RS.
Ganjam	297,641	5,78,131	Salem	105,708	4,82,414
Vizagapatam	166,676	2,99,088	Coimbatore ...	103,383	5,57,357
Godavari	603,387	24,74,793	Tanjore	944,573	37,12,975
Kistna	278,324	11,88,169	Trichinopoly ...	206,376	7,79,685
Nellore	224,219	6,51,961	Nilgiris	40	90
Cuddapah	226,805	7,34,849	Malabar	388,309	11,66,266
Kurnool	54,737	2,63,692	Madura	182,157	6,55,546
Bellary	163,632	6,83,829	Tinnevelly	204,894	15,00,612
Chingleput	352,693	8,09,016			
North Arcot	262,898	11,37,863			
South Arcot	389,414	16,87,296	Total ...	5,155,866	1,93,63,632

Revenue due to irrigation.

Recently, and for the first time in the budget of 1879-80, an approximate determination has been made of the revenue due to irrigation as distinguished from the revenue derived from irrigated land, which latter includes the land assessment. In some districts irrigated land pays a land assessment and a water-rate, and in such cases the revenue due to irrigation is comparatively easy of settlement. In other districts the assessment is and always has been consolidated, and the accounts make no distinction between the shares due to the value of the land and of the water respectively. For the Kistna Delta system the revenue due to irrigation, from the beginning, has been exhaustively determined in the Revenue Department by an examination of the village records, and a similar investigation has been nearly completed for the Godavari Delta system. For the rest of the systems classed as Productive Public Works and for all other Irrigation Works, the revenue due to irrigation has been arbitrarily deduced from a comparison of the prevailing assessments of unirrigated and irrigated lands respectively, the difference between which has been assumed to represent the value of the water, and consequently the revenue due to irrigation. Arrangements have been made for a more precise determination in the case of all irrigation systems for which Capital and Revenue Accounts are maintained. The following abstract taken from the budget statements shows the revenue due to irrigation, and that obtained from navigation and other sources :—

Systems, &c.	Revenue due to		Total.
	Irrigation.	Navigation and other sources.	
	RS.	RS.	RS.
1. Godavari Delta System	16,18,000	84,500	17,02,500
2. Kistna do. do.	7,41,000	26,350	7,67,350
3. Pennair Anicut do.	1,60,000	400	1,60,400
4. Cauvery Delta do.	25,62,000	9,000	25,71,000
5. Strivaikuntham Anicut System ...	1,33,000	1,500	1,34,500
1. Chembrumbakam Tank	10,000	5	10,005
2. Palar Anicut	92,000	195	92,195
3. Pelandorai Anicut	*	50	50
Other works	83,77,000	15,000	83,92,000
Total ...	1,36,93,000	1,37,000	1,38,30,000

* Information not available.

Conservancy of works of irrigation.

The old works of irrigation were almost without exception, and a majority of them are still, without adequate means of disposing of surplus water and distributing water for irrigation; and an outlay on works, such as weirs, sluices, &c., considerably larger than the present outlay, is required to prevent recurring loss of revenue. It is to be regretted that the responsibility of villagers for the timely execution of petty repairs to tanks and other works belonging to the village have generally been allowed to lapse; and opinions differ as to the possibility of its revival. The execution of such repairs at the public cost materially affects the charges for maintenance of irrigation works. Various proposals have from time to time been made having for their object the transfer to the villagers interested of the duty of maintaining the smaller tanks and channels. The relief which such a transfer would bring to the Irrigation Department, and indirectly to the Public Works Department generally, would be very considerable, and it is certain that real economy would, under efficient arrangements, result because the necessary work could be done by villagers at times when field work is slack. The latest proposals are those made by the Irrigation Committee of the Famine Commission, and they have been referred by the latter for the opinion of Government which has not yet been communicated.

PUBLIC WORKS—RAILWAYS.

Relations between Government and Railways.

The railway system of the Madras Presidency is at present exclusively the guarantee system. The design, that is to say, and construction of the railroads are entrusted to joint-stock companies, and the Indian Government guarantees interest on moneys duly raised and paid to Government by these companies, while it controls their expenditure and operations. The principal concessions granted under this agreement are the following:—(1) The Government guarantee interest varying in amount from 4½ to 5 per cent. for a term of years* on all moneys paid with authority into their treasury, and should the profits in any half-year exceed the guaranteed interest, the surplus is equally divided between Government and the shareholders. (2) The Railway Company have the option of demanding repayment, upon their giving six months' notice of their intention to surrender the railway, of the whole of the capital duly expended upon the railway. On the other hand the Government have the option of purchasing the railway at fixed periods (due notice being given) on payment of the value of all shares calculated

* Madras Railway 99 years, South Indian Railway 999 years.

according to their mean market-value during three preceding years. The first opportunity of purchasing the Madras Railway will occur on the 1st April 1907, and of the South Indian Railway on 1st March 1890. (3) Government lease to the Railway Company free of cost for a term* of years all land required for the permanent works of the railway, and further provide all other land temporarily needed for its construction; land not permanently needed being returned to Government as soon as possible. In consideration of the above grants of aid, the Government have the power to select the line, to define the limits of all works, to supervise expenditure and operations in England and in India, to examine accounts, to inspect works and line under or after completion, to regulate tolls and time-tables, and generally to control the affairs of the Railway Company. Mails are to be carried free; troops and Government stores on the usual favorable terms. There are at present two Railway Companies in the Presidency; the Madras Railway Company, and the South Indian Railway Company. In neither case have the half-yearly profits ever covered the guaranteed interest.

Control by Government.

The control in England is exercised by an official Director, who sits at the Boards of all Guaranteed Railway Companies, and who has the power of passing a veto on their proceedings. In India the supervision is entrusted to the Consulting Engineer for Railways, and the following rules have been laid down for his guidance:—(1) All questions of general importance shall be referred to Government for decision. (2) Under the above will be included the general direction of all lines of railway, the position of stations, and the general arrangements of the more important stations and works. But after the general sanction of the Government has been given to any project, all questions of detail can be disposed of within the limits of the original sanction by the Consulting Engineer. (3) All matters of routine, or payments, or acts in accordance with rule, precedent, or special agreement duly sanctioned, or undisputed contingent expenditure, may be dealt with by the Consulting Engineer without reference to Government. (4) All designs, estimates, and indents, whether for work or for establishments for carrying into effect objects already generally sanctioned by Government, may also be disposed of finally by the Consulting Engineer. (5) The Consulting Engineer may, without reference to Government, reduce the amount of indents, or direct designs or proposed operations to be modified if he thinks it necessary; but the Agent in such cases, if dissatisfied with the decision of the Consulting Engineer, may always request that the matter be referred for the final orders of the Government. (6) When the sanction of the Consulting

* Madras Railway 99 years, South Indian Railway 999 years.

Engineer is given to any proposals of the Agent, in which both of these officers concur, excepting in those matters of great importance specially excepted above, the sanction so given shall, so far as the Government is concerned, be considered final.

Madras Railway.

The Madras Railway head-quarters are at Madras; and the Company's undertaking consists of two main lines. The first stretches across the peninsula in a south-westerly direction from Madras to Beypore (406 miles); with branches from Jollarpett to Bangalore (85 miles), and from Potanur to Mettapolliem, near the foot of the Nilgiri Hills (26 miles). The second main line leaves the first at Arkonam (43 miles from Madras), and runs in a north-westerly direction to Raichore (308 miles), where it joins the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay. It has a branch from Guntakal to Bellary (32 miles). The Madras Railway system thus consists of 857 miles of railway; of which the section between Madras and Arkonam (43 miles) is a double line, and the remainder (814 miles) single line. The entire system has been constructed on the Indian broad gauge of 5 feet 6 inches. The capital expenditure on the Madras Railway exceeds ten millions sterling.

South Indian Railway.

The South Indian Railway head-quarters are at present at Negapatam, but their removal to Trichinopoly is under consideration. The Company's undertaking consists of a main line running south from Madras to Tuticorn (444 miles). On this there is at present a short unopened gap of 4 miles, to the south of Chilambaram, in which is situated the large bridge over the Coleroon; but it is confidently expected that the bridge will be completed, and the line opened throughout for traffic by the 1st July 1879. There are branches from Tanjore to Negapatam (48 miles); from Trichinopoly to Erode, a station on the Madras Railway, (90 miles); and from Maniachi to Tinnevelly (18 miles). The Company have also a branch from Arkonam, a station on the Madras Railway, to Conjeveram (19 miles); and it is expected that sanction will be accorded for its extension to Chingleput on the main line of the South Indian Railway (21 miles). A branch is also under construction from Villupuram to meet the Pondicherry Railway Company's line (French) at the Gingee river (17 miles). The South Indian Railway system will thus consist of 657 miles of railway, all single line. The first portion of the Company's undertaking, from Negapatam to Erode, was constructed on the Indian broad gauge, of 5 feet 6 inches; but, when the extensions to Madras and Tuticorin were sanctioned, it was determined that the entire system should be on the Indian narrow, or metre, gauge, of 3 feet $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches. Of the old line, the portion between Negapatam and Trichinopoly has already been converted to the metre gauge; and

arrangements have been made for the early conversion of the remaining portion between Trichinopoly and Erode. The capital expenditure on the South Indian Railway exceeds four million sterling.

MADRAS IRRIGATION COMPANY.

History of Company.

The Guaranteed Company styled the Madras Irrigation and Canal Company was incorporated by an Act of Parliament, dated the 11th May 1858, for the purpose of constructing and managing works of irrigation and navigation in various parts of India. An indenture or contract-deed was executed on the 3rd June 1863 between the Company and the Secretary of State for India, providing for the execution by the Company of one work to be selected by the local Government, to cost one million sterling, and on which 5 per cent. return was guaranteed by the Secretary of State. In pursuance of that agreement, the so-called Toombudra or Tongabudra project was adopted. This included a canal for irrigation and navigation from Sunkesala 17 miles above the town of Kurnool on the Toombudra to the Kistnapatam estuary on the sea-coast in Nellore. The Company accordingly undertook that section of the scheme which extends from Sunkesala to Soomaisweram on the Pennair River. In 1866 it having been found that the original estimate was quite insufficient to complete the project, a further agreement was concluded on the 30th July of that year. This contract separates the section of the scheme extending from Sunkesala to Cuddapah from the remainder of the project, and provides for a loan of £600,000 from the Secretary of State to the Company on the security of debentures issued by them, the loan to be expended in the completion of the canal to the Pennair and thence to the town of Cuddapah. The work was virtually completed in 1871.

Financial condition.

Hitherto the canal has been a failure in a financial point of view. The returns from Irrigation and the sale of water generally have been insignificant when compared with the capital outlay. They averaged about Rupees 51,000 per annum up to the end of 1875-76, the charges against revenue for maintenance and establishment being about Rupees 1,80,000 annually. The impetus given to irrigation in the following years by the failure of the monsoon rains raised the revenue very materially as shown below :—

	Rs.
1876-77	2,47,434
1877-78	1,49,130

Some of the extension will no doubt be permanent, but there is evidence that much of the enlarged area will be cultivated usually without aid

from the canal. The principal causes of the absence of financial success are—1*st*.—The unwillingness of the ryots of much of the Kurnool district traversed by the canal to use the canal water. This is undoubtedly the most important cause of want of success. Authorities differ as to the reason for this unwillingness. It has been attributed to a greater or less extent to the water rates being in excess of what the ryots can afford to pay, to defective administration, &c., but as regards a large part of the area commanded, viz., that in the Koondanur valley or that under about 90 miles of the canal it is tolerably clear that the ryots are persuaded that, in ordinary years at any rate, irrigation would not benefit them, their lands (the black clay soil, termed regada) bearing excellent dry crops which are raised with but little trouble, and which give them the means of providing for all their wants. The conversion of dry lands into rice fields entails considerable expense, involves the use of a description of plough cattle differing from that the ryots possess, and the well-to-do ryot while quite willing to take part in the ploughing of dry lands and to superintend all the operations required in the cultivation of dry crops, has no fancy for walking about in deep mud as he must do in this soil, if he abandons the cultivation which he and his forefathers have practised for generations, and takes to rice cultivation. In the famine year these ryots allowed their dry crops to perish from drought, when canal water was available and might have saved much of them. They believed that their favourite crop, cholum, would not grow when artificially irrigated; and though this prejudice has to some extent been dissipated by the demonstration that very fair crops could be raised, from beginning to end, without a drop of rain, they are not likely to ask for canal water for such dry crops as cholum until they may be compelled to abandon all hope of obtaining the rainfall necessary to secure a harvest. Under the upper parts of the canal in Kurnool, and under the lower parts of the canal in Cuddapah, canal irrigation of rice crops, ragi, indigo, &c., has made considerable progress and appears to be fairly popular. 2*nd*.—The high capital outlay on the canal works. These works have cost considerably more than double the amount anticipated when the first estimates were framed. 3*rd*.—The postponement of the arrangements necessary for opening the canal for navigation—a postponement due to the company being without the capital required to complete the navigation works and to provide floating plant—has, it has been alleged, acted prejudicially against the extension of irrigation. On navigation works at the time of the first construction of the canal, Rupees 36,80,584 were expended, and this outlay could yield no return until navigation should be rendered feasible, but on the other hand the up-keep of these works has been a source of expense. By the refunds of capital outlay on the

investigation, &c., of certain parts of the scheme now abandoned, which were made to the company early in 1878, the funds needed to complete the preparations for starting navigation have become available.

Originally the business of the company with Government was transacted through the Consulting Engineer, and this arrangement continued in force up to 1871, when this appointment was abolished and the duty transferred to the Chief Engineer for Irrigation. Supervision.

POST.

There is no local control of the Imperial Postal Department, and no details are procurable for this volume. Imperial Post.

The District Post existed in this Presidency prior to 1846 solely for the transmission of official correspondence between Collectors and Magistrates and their subordinate officers. It had then no connection with the ordinary Postal Department, and the dawks were carried by the peons and village servants belonging to the Revenue Establishment as they could be spared from other duty. There were no receipts, and no separate charges appeared in the accounts. In 1846 the District Post was opened to the public on payment of postage in cash, the agency continued the same, and the district postage, regulated on a different principle from the post rates of the ordinary Postal Department, furnished a fund credited to the district in which it was raised. A letter passed on from the regular Post to the District Post for delivery at an outlying village where there was no regular post office was charged district rate in addition to the regular postage, and *vice versâ*. There was no intercommunication between the two Posts. It was not at this time contemplated that the district dawks should be a source of profit to the State; consequently it was understood that the Collector of each district was authorised to expend on the improvement of the district postal system any revenue which it produced. The receipts grew very rapidly, and in 1848-49 amounted to Rupees 21,734. In 1854 postage stamps were introduced in lieu of cash payments in the regular Postal Department, and simultaneously it was arranged that as regards matters of payment, as far as the public was concerned, there should be no distinction between this Post and the District Post, the two forming one system for the public convenience. From this date the District Post may be said to have been converted into a feeder of the Imperial Post. During the last fifteen years various District Posts—History.

improvements have been made in the district dawk in the employment of a special establishment for delivery, in opening new District Post Offices and lines, and in the extension of the system to outlying parts. Under Act XIV of 1866, Section 64, the Governor-General in Council is empowered to frame rules, from time to time, for regulating the district dawks, and in exercise of that power Sections 25, 27, 35, 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48, 49, 50, and 51 of the Act just named have been made applicable to them in this Presidency. As the receipts from postage stamps are now credited to Imperial, and even cash payments incidental to unpaid or insufficiently paid letters sent by District Post are collected by the Imperial Department, while the charges for district runners and gumastahs remain as they were before, it follows that all the receipts in this department go to Imperial while all the charges go to Provincial; the expenditure however is covered by the Imperial grant.

—Present arrangements.

The District Post as now arranged furnishes inter-communication between those parts of the country which are removed from the General Post line. The taluk stations are the first connected, and between these the delivery is carried out by the ordinary staff of Village Postmen. The delivery into outlying villages is carried out by a system called the Rural Delivery. The Rural Delivery establishment consists of a staff of itinerating Postmen, whose beats are so arranged that they shall visit the principal villages in the taluk once, twice, and thrice a week, or daily, according to the importance of the village, its accessibility, and the funds that are available; and of village letter boxes and receiving-houses or houses of call for the Postmen. The latter are managed by respectable inhabitants of the village, who in some cases give their services gratuitously, and in other cases are paid a small stipend of Rupees 2 a month. The administration of the District Post is vested in the Revenue Department, but it has been found convenient in the case of most districts to entrust the detailed management to the Postmaster-General, who, in communication with the Collectors, undertakes the practical working of the Post, the Collectors finding the funds in their revenue budgets. Again when a comparison of the District Post charges for any establishment with the Imperial receipts shown by the postage stamps carried indicates that in the case of this particular establishment the latter amount covers the former, with a margin of one-fifth, the Postmaster-General is authorised by the Government of India to take over the whole of the charges for that establishment, thus absorbing that portion of the District Post into the Imperial Post. When this takes place Provincial funds get a clear gain of the charges recently incurred, and these savings are utilised in the improvements of the remaining district establishments, especially in the direction of developing the Rural Delivery system. It is difficult to bring about

individual solvency in the case of each establishment, and an arrangement has been lately made for relaxing the conditions so as to group establishments and offices for purposes of experiment. The District Post offices and the Village Postmen are, in consequence of this arrangement, now grouped according to the taluks in which they are situated. Accounts are kept of the revenue and expenditure of this Taluk District Post Establishment, and when the solvency of the Taluk Rural Delivery is confirmed, the cost of the upkeep is debited to Imperial funds, and the District Post funds so released are moved on to the next taluk, which then receives a similar rural delivery organization and passes through a similar period of financial experiment until it, in its turn, proves its solvency and is made Imperial. During the year 1878-79 rural delivery was in operation, with more or less of financial success, in 26 taluks of 15 districts, and in 11 taluks solvency had been established and Imperial amalgamation had taken place. The net results of the system, so far as it has gone, goes to show that in the richer districts, such as Tanjore, Godavari, Kistna, Malabar, Tinnevelly, and South Arcot, the rural delivery is appreciated by the people; but that it will take some time before it is largely used in the poorer districts. It is noteworthy that where Missions have established rural education, this Post receives a great stimulus. Fluctuations in receipts are occasioned by a variety of causes; being for instance at a maximum in the early months of the year, when marriages are being celebrated, and at a minimum in the rains when people are engaged in agricultural pursuits. On the 31st March 1879 the District Post establishments of the Presidency consisted of 6 District Post offices, 293 Village Receiving Houses, and 381 Letter Boxes, or a total of 680 District Postal receptacles of all kinds, besides 854 village itinerating Postmen and 529 runners working over 2,887¼ miles of District Post lines.

TELEGRAPH.

The Government Telegraph Department is Imperial, and there is no local control. The Madras division is conterminous with the Madras Presidency, at Bellary and Raichore in the north-west, and at Tinnevelly, Tuticorin, and Rameswaram in the south. The offices open at the end of 1878-79 were:—Madras, Pondicherry, Negapatam, Paumben, and Tuticorin. Telegraphic communication throughout the Presidency is carried out to a great extent by means of the Railway Telegraphs. The following were at the end of 1878-79 the lengths of the

Imperial Telegraph.

Sub-divisions of the Madras Division, excluding wires carried on supports of the department, but belonging to the Local Government:—

South Indian Railway Northern Sub-division.

	Miles of Line.	Miles of Wire.
From South Indian Railway Station, Egmore, to Tanjore, and from Tanjore to Trichinopoly, Sheally to Negapatam, and Pondicherry to Terupapulyur (loop line)	269·9	907·3

South Indian Railway Southern Sub-division.

From Trichinopoly to Maniachi Junction, Maniachi Junction to Tuticorin (loop line), Maniachi Junction to Tinnevelly, and Madura to Tallamanaar including Cables in circuit	350·82	890·6

Madras Sub-division.

From Madras to Raichore, and from Goondacul Junction to Bellary, and Madras office to Junction with South Indian Railway Northern Sub-division	382·610	918·36
Total ...	1003·330	2716·26

SECTION V.

REVENUE AND FINANCE.

INTRODUCTORY CLASSIFICATION AND REMARKS.

General classification of the subject.

THE receipts of this Presidency may be considered, technical details apart, under three distinct divisions; first those applied to the general service of the Empire, secondly those appropriated for the exclusive wants of the Presidency, and thirdly those appropriated for the exclusive benefit of a particular locality or service within the Presidency. The first division will consist chiefly of the revenue derived from taxation of the people, such as Land Revenue, Duty on Spirits and Drugs, Customs, Salt, and Stamps; but includes also some departmental receipts, such as Judicial Fees and Fines, Marine, Postal, and Telegraph collections, Military and Imperial Public Works Receipts, Interest on Loans and Advances made by Government; and sundry miscellaneous items, as for instance gain by exchange and receipts in aid of superannuation. The tribute and peishcush received from the Mysore, Cochin, and Travancore States also appear under this division. The second division will include the sums annually assigned out of Imperial revenue by the Government of India for Provincial purposes, known till recently as Provincial Services; the departmental receipts of Jails, Registration, Police, Education, Medical, and Printing; certain petty items, such as the pilotage collections in the Paumben Channel, and the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examination fees; and the Cattle Pound Fund which though of local origin is held to be at the disposal of the local Government for purposes of the Presidency. The third division will include taxes raised by special enactment or ruling, such as Road, Village Service, and Irrigation Cesses, the tax on firewood and tolls on roads and canals, these taxes being controlled by the Board of Revenue through the medium of Collectors or of the Local Fund Boards; certain funds known till recently as Special Funds, such as Convict Labor and Police Lodging Funds, which

are under the control of the Heads of the Jail and Police Departments respectively; and certain funds which though of a public nature viewed as taxes are not admitted into the public accounts furnished to the Government of India by the Accountant-General, namely Municipal Funds, and the following till recently known as Special Funds, viz., Port, Educational Building, Endowment, and Cantonment Funds. It will be observed that whereas the funds levied in the rural districts under Act IV of 1871 are included, the Municipal funds levied in towns under Act III of 1871 are excluded from the public accounts. The distinction is from many points of view arbitrary. There are however certain technical grounds for a distinction. Thus Local Funds under Act IV of 1871 are collected by the ordinary Government agency of the country, and by means of an entry in the usual revenue puttah; and they are paid invariably into the Government treasury, and are subject there to Government control and audit. Neither of these conditions can be predicated of funds raised under the Towns' Improvement Act, in the case of which the Town Commissioners are left to collect their own resources, and to bank or not with the Government as they please. Moreover, generally speaking, the interference of Government is less frequently and less directly exercised in the case of Municipal funds than in the case of funds under the Local Funds' Act. The reason for excluding from the public accounts sent to the Government of India the funds last named, viz., Port, Educational Building, Endowment and Cantonment Funds, is similar. These funds that is to say are regarded as specific trusts.

Classification in the Administration Reports.

Following the above-mentioned general classification of revenue, and at the same time making use of the technical financial distinctions of the Account Department, the order observed in treating the whole subject in the Administration Reports of the Government is as at foot. The sub-section shown in the Administration Reports on "Gross Income and Expenditure" explains the figures of gross receipts and expenditure, and compares them with those of the previous year. Monetary arrangements are noticed with reference to the assistance given to other portions of the empire and the mode in which such assistance is given. Mention is made of the arrangements for supply of different kinds of money to the different treasuries, and their sufficiency or otherwise is noted. Important changes in account-keeping are mentioned. The sub-section on "Imperial Services Civil" gives to begin with a general statement, which includes incidence of taxation; and then proceeds to particular statements of the sub-heads Land Revenue, Abkári, Customs, Salt, and Stamps, these being the sub-heads of principal general interest. Under the heads Abkári, Customs, Salt, and Stamps are given not only the financial but also the administrative details of the year; as under the present scheme of the

Administration Report there is no other place for such remarks. The other sub-sections and headings explain themselves. The arrangement followed in the following pages will be identical with the above; only that some additional headings under sub-section II, (1)-*a* not treated of in the Administration Reports will here receive notice. It may be observed that the Government do not attempt to show a literal agreement between the audited figures put out by them in the Finance Section of their Administration Report and the unaudited figures incidentally mentioned in reporting on the administration of other departments. The classification above referred to is as follows :—

Sub-section I.—Gross income and expenditure.
Sub-section II.—Detailed income and expenditure under the following headings :—
1. *a.* Imperial Services, Civil.
b. Imperial Services, Public Works.
c. Imperial Services, Postal and Telegraph.
d. Imperial Services, Military.
2. *a.* Provincial Services proper.
b. Local funds at the unfettered disposal of Government for Provincial purposes; these are called Unfettered Local Funds.
3. Local funds not at the unfettered disposal of Government for Provincial purposes, but limited to a special or local purpose; these are called Fettered Local Funds.
4. Local funds excluded from the Public Accounts.
5. Loans.
6. Advances under Land Improvement Act.
Sub-section III.— Paper Currency Department.
Sub-section IV.— Money Order Department.

Method of financial administration.

The funds above-mentioned are controlled generally by the Local Government, and administered in detail by heads of departments or by the Board of Revenue under the supervision of Government. The Board of Revenue administer in detail the Land Revenue, Forest, Excise, Customs, Salt, Stamps, District Post, District Presses, Local Funds under Act IV of 1871, and many of the so-called Special Funds; while Jails, Registration, Police, Education, Medical, and Marine Services, with a few of the Special Funds, are administered in detail by the respective heads of those departments. In the case of Military and Public Works the arrangements are somewhat special. For Postal and Telegraph there is no local control. In keeping its accounts the Local Government is assisted by Imperial officers, who, though subordinate to the Government of India, are required to conform to all requisitions of the Local Government which may not be opposed to the specific orders of the Government of India. The principal of these officers is the Accountant-General, who, besides his duties connected with accounts and audit, has the duty also of advising the Local Government on all matters of finance. The Accountant-General acts as general paymaster to the Local Government. He is also appointed Commissioner of Paper Currency.

Budgets.

At a sufficient time before the commencement of each official year heads of departments place before the Local Government an estimate of the probable income and expenditure of their departments under all heads for that year. The material thus sent in is grouped by the Local Government under some of the sub-section heads mentioned in the classification given above, or some of their sub-divisions, and budgets are prepared for those heads. The Imperial Services budget goes to the Government of India for final manipulation and inclusion in the general budget for the empire. The details of the others are not revised by the Government of India, and the Local Government is therefore competent to dispose of them finally, merely reporting results to the Government of India. Though the budgets stand thus on a different footing, they all go practically to the Government of India in one combined Provincial and Imperial budget. For budget purposes the Fettered Local Funds are called Incorporated Funds, which means funds incorporated with the Provincial budget.

—Preparation of a Provincial budget.

The mode of dealing with the budgets may be seen by noting the particular case of the Provincial Services budget, where the orders of the Local Government are practically final. In this case District Collectors or other local officers supply the head of the department with approximate estimates of their receipts and expenditure for the ensuing official year. This is done about September in the current year. The subordinate estimates usually contain figures in three columns side by side, showing (1), the actuals of the previous year; (2), the estimate already sanctioned for the current year; and (3), the proposed estimate for the ensuing year. The actuals in the first column are often not the audited figures as finally given by the auditing officer, but for budget purposes this cause of inaccuracy is unimportant. In some cases a "regular estimate" for the current year, consisting of the ascertained actuals of so many months of the current year, added to a newly prepared estimate for the remaining months, is added as a fourth column. The subordinate estimates prepared in this way are revised by the head of the department, in communication, if necessary, with the local officer, and are worked up into a complete budget estimate for that department, and forwarded to the Local Government with remarks and explanations. This is done usually by December in the current year. The Local Government brings together the departmental budgets into a single Provincial budget for the Presidency, which is forwarded in a combined form, to the Government of India for their information. As soon as the whole Provincial budget is arranged, and in some unimportant cases even before that is done, the Local Government send back the departmental budgets separately to the heads of departments with final orders upon them. In some cases the budget is sanctioned as submitted; in other cases the amounts are

altered to suit the exigencies of other departments, or for reasons peculiar to that particular budget. The heads of departments in turn transmit the budgets thus received, or portions of them, to the local officers concerned.

—Utilisation of a Provincial budget.

A sanctioned Provincial departmental budget indicates to the head of the department and to the auditing officer the limits of expenditure for the year to which it relates. The budget is comprised of various entries, according to the subjects concerned and the sub-divisions or officers composing the department; each appropriation entry is complete in itself, and cannot under ordinary circumstances be exceeded. On the other hand, under certain conditions any expenditure may be incurred during the year up to the amount of that entry. The main conditions are: that the expenditure shall be of a nature such as under an ordinary construction can fairly be brought under that head of entry, and in cases where such a restriction is necessary, shall be distributed over the year in a reasonable way suitable to the circumstances; to decide as to both of which is left to the discretion of the spending and auditing officers; again that no more than certain fixed amounts shall be spent without special sanction on any one item, whatever the condition of the funds under the appropriation entry, and that in some cases no expenditure at all shall take place on certain things, for instance new establishments, without special sanction, both of which checks are provided for by standing orders of the Local Government. In all these matters the head of the department controls the subordinate officer, and the local Government controls the head of the department. New establishments cannot be sanctioned by any authority lower than the Local Government, and general rates of pay and allowances can be altered only on the authority of the Government of India. The transfer of funds from the appropriation entry of one local officer to that of another, or from one "minor head" to another of the same officer's appropriation, can usually be effected by the head of the department but never by any local officer. Similarly, the transfer of funds from one department to another, or from one "major head" to another of Provincial Services, can be carried out by the Local Government, but not by any head of department. If an officer finds that the funds under any one of his "minor heads" are exhausted, or are insufficient for his purposes, he applies to the head of the department, who will either provide money from such reserve as he may have at his disposal under the budget-head of "reserve," or will obtain funds from "savings" in one or other of the methods just mentioned. In effecting transfers from "savings," the head of the department ascertains the state of the funds in other branches of his department or under other budget entries of the same branch, either by communication with the local officer himself, or by application to the accounting

officer, whose books will give the necessary information. If these measures do not suffice, application must be made by the head of the department to the Government, who will then, if it thinks fit, assign funds from its own reserve.

Financial powers of Board of Revenue.

The financial powers of the Board of Revenue are in many respects larger than those of any other head of department; their mention here will at any rate illustrate some of the remarks given above. The officers controlled by the Board are Collectors, the Commissioner of Salt Revenue, the Superintendent of Government Farms, and the Superintendent of Stamps; Collectors administering nearly all the subjects mentioned above as belonging to the Board. Items on which these subordinate officers can incur no expenditure without previous sanction, whatever the state of funds under the corresponding appropriation entry, are (1), salt works costing more than Rupees 2,000; (2), other petty public works under land revenue and customs costing more than Rupees 100; (3), law charges in civil suits; (4), refunds of unauthorised collections other than law fines after two years have elapsed; (5), office furniture; (6), binding books; (7), press materials; (8), office rent; and various other less important items. The Board have to go to the Government for sanction in the following cases: (1), salt works costing more than Rupees 5,000; (2), other works under land revenue and customs likely to cost more than Rupees 2,000; (3), purchase of periodicals and books; with various other items. No mention is here made of such conditions as are common to all departments; for instance, the prohibition of entertaining new establishments without Government sanction.

Disbursements.

Government money is lodged at the Presidency town with the Bank of Madras, and at Berhampore, Cocanada, Guntoor, Negapatam, Tuticorin, Calicut, Cochin, Mangalore, Ootacamund, and Bellary with its agents; at all other places it is left in treasuries under charge of Collectors of districts. There are 23 district treasuries, besides 333 taluk and subordinate treasuries; the former are usually under the immediate charge of Treasury Deputy Collectors and the latter under the immediate charge of Tahsildars. The funds due from taxation and other receipts are paid into the various treasuries, and it is the duty of the Accountant-General to arrange by remittances of cash and other measures that the funds are duly distributed over the country in accordance with public requirements. Remittances from other Presidencies to this Presidency are very rare. The Accountant-General provides funds for all departments. If a local officer has authority to spend money and wishes to do so, he draws the sum from the nearest treasury or bank keeping Government funds. The rules for disbursement vary in different departments. Generally however it may be

said that an officer wishing to draw cash tenders a bill or claim, and if the charge is unusual quotes the authority; if the claim is an authorised one the Treasury officer pays the money and takes a receipt from the payee, or if the business of the treasury be managed by one of the Banks orders it for payment at the Bank. At head-quarters the Collector delegates all his powers in connection with the treasury to the Treasury Deputy Collector; the subordinate Treasury officers at the taluks can ordinarily make payments only on the authority of the Collector or Treasury Deputy Collector. In connection with lodgment of Government funds with treasuries and banks, it should be mentioned that local officers are authorised to withdraw and retain a certain small portion of the funds under a system of permanent advances for conducting current expenditure under certain of their budget heads. The transactions of all taluk and subordinate treasuries are reported monthly to Collectors, by whom they are incorporated in the district account and forwarded monthly to the Accountant-General.

Treasury cash arrangements.

The bulk of the money in the District Treasury is in a chest under the lock and key of the Collector, only a sufficient sum being placed in charge of the Cash-keeper for current expenditure. The amount of money to be left with the Cash-keeper is not fixed by any rule, but when the balance with the Cash-keeper in the evening of any day exceeds 10,000 Rupees, the excess is usually transferred to the Collector's box. During the absence of the Collector, the keys are kept with the Covenanted Assistant at head-quarters. The Collector, and, during his absence, his Covenanted Assistant is personally present when cash or stamps are taken out of or put into the receptacles under his lock and key. The Treasury is examined monthly by the Collector, or one of his Covenanted Assistants, and a report is made to the Accountant-General as to whether the amount in it is correct. The examination is made by a Deputy Collector, other than the Deputy Collector in charge of the Treasury, if it is impossible for any of the Covenanted officers to conduct the examination. Every evening the Deputy Collector in charge of the Treasury signs the cash-book. He also examines the balance in the expense chest with the Cash-keeper, at least once a week. The periodical examination of the money in the cash-chest by the Deputy Collector is always reported to the Collector. The Taluk Treasury is under the joint lock and key of the Tahsildar and Taluk Sheristadar, both the keys being in the sole charge of the latter when the former is absent from head-quarters. The Taluk Sheristadar examines every evening the balance in the Treasury, and signs the Chitta with a certificate that the balance has been found to be correct. The Chitta is countersigned by the Tahsildar when he is present at head-quarters. Shroffs or subordinate Cash-keepers are never placed in charge of the keys of the Treasury, either in the district or the taluk.

They are only held responsible for bad coin and over-payments during the day. The Tahsildar examines the balance in the chest not less than twice a month, and every time he leaves and arrives at head-quarters; and reports having done so to the Deputy Collector in charge of the Treasury. Taluk Treasuries are examined by the Collector or one of his Assistants not less than once every six months, and a report is made to the Board of Revenue.

Account and Audit.

The accounts kept by treasuries and forwarded to the Accountant-General are chiefly records of receipts and disbursements, entered in prescribed forms of a more detailed nature than the budget forms. The principal return is the monthly Treasury Account Current. Annually a set of questions relating to the internal economy of the treasury is filled in by the Collector and forwarded to the Accountant-General. The Presidency books of the Civil Department are kept by the Accountant-General, those of the Military Department by the Controller of Military Accounts, those of the Public Works Department by the Examiner of Public Works Accounts, and those of the Postal and Telegraph Departments by the Compilers of those accounts. The accounting officers here mentioned, other than the Accountant-General, are furnished by the Accountant-General with monthly accounts of their respective departments, as appearing in the Treasury accounts in different parts of the country. Such departmental accounts are treated as remittances in the Accountant-General's books. The accounts of the local Accountant-General are rendered finally to the Comptroller-General, by whom they are incorporated in the Imperial books of the Government of India. Military transactions are accounted for to the Accountant-General, Military Department, Calcutta, and by him to the Comptroller-General. Similarly for Public Works which go into the Imperial books through the Accountant-General, Public Works Department, Calcutta, and for Postal and Telegraph transactions which are adjusted through the Departmental Accounts branch of the Comptroller-General Provincial Public Works form part of the report of the Examiner, Public Works Accounts, but they come back to the local Accountant-General for final adjustment. The local accounting officers perform the duties of audit as well. At the Presidency town itself disbursements of the Civil Department, except those of the nature of advances, are made after audit by an officer of the Account Department and on his orders. Elsewhere they are made in anticipation of the audit of the Account Department.

SUB-SECTION I.—GROSS INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

The following abstract for a recent average year, 1875-76, will show the general resources of the Presidency:— Abstract of receipts and charges.

	Receipts. 1875-76.	Payments. 1875-76.
	RS.	RS.
Imperial Services, Civil	817,11,645	277,06,181
Military Department	17,26,478	273,69,931
Public Works Department	1,83,386	48,90,145
Telegraphs	4,30,212	7,46,281
Provincial Services	93,54,867	94,60,298
Local and Special Funds	113,40,112	122,09,653
Total ...	1,047,46,700	823,82,489

The percentage of the total payments to Government in the Madras Presidency, exclusive of local taxes and of tributes from Native States, but inclusive of items transferred to Provincial Services per head of population, compares with that in the other parts of India as shown hereunder, taking the figures of 1871-72:— Percentage of revenue to population.

	Population.	Total Revenue 1871-72.	Percentage of Revenue per head of Population.
		RS.	
1. Bombay	16,349,206	872,27,190	5·3
2. British Burmah	2,747,148	121,81,020	4·4
3. Berar	2,231,565	73,70,090	3·3
4. Bengal and Assam	64,727,543	1,674,04,270	2·5
5. Madras	31,281,177	755,78,820	2·4
6. Punjab	17,611,498	358,34,870	2·0
7. North-West Provinces	30,781,204	576,70,700	1·9
8. Mysore	5,055,412	106,18,530	2·1
9. Oude	11,220,232	155,33,090	1·4
10. Central Provinces	8,201,519	102,58,510	1·2
Total ...	190,206,504	4,796,77,090	2·5
11. Government of India	...	208,63,290	...
12. Receipts from the Military Department, Commissariat, &c.	...	89,50,330	...
13. Contribution from Native States ...	...	74,40,360	...
Grand Total ...	...	5,169,31,070	...

The following figures for some of the principal countries in the world at about the same date are given in illustration of those shown above; but comparison must be made with caution, as the term revenue is used in varying senses in the financial statistics of different countries. The receipts have been converted into Indian currency at the artificial rate of two shillings the rupee:— Ditto in other countries for comparison.

Countries.	Population.	Revenue. Items.	Amount.	Rate per Head.
			Rs.	
1. Denmark ...	1,794,733	1. Receipts from Lands, Railways, and Interest from Loans.	29,77,450	
		2. Direct Taxes	60,48,960	
		3. Indirect Taxes	120,30,100	
		4. Miscellaneous Net Revenue including Loans.	264,65,730	
		Total* ...	484,22,240	26·9
2. France ...	36,102,921	1. Direct Taxes, Imperial	2,222,26,010	
		2. Forests and Fisheries	207,04,740	
		3. Revenue and sales of Crown lands.	88,37,210	
		4. Registration and Stamp duties ...	1,677,01,380	
		5. Customs	728,35,670	
		6. Excise duties on Sugar, &c. ...	2,548,45,190	
		7. Post-office	306,47,770	
		8. Miscellaneous	671,57,710	
		Total Ordinary Revenue ...	8,569,55,680	
		Extra Receipts ...	293,83,720	
		Total* ...	8,863,39,400	24·3
3. United Kingdom.	31,629,299	1. Customs	2,027,28,550	
		2. Inland Revenue, Excise and Stamps.	3,312,56,120	
		Income and Property-tax ...	932,81,020	
		House duty and Land-tax ...	235,21,810	
		Total Inland Revenue ...	4,480,58,950	
		3. Post-office	494,15,100	
		4. Telegraph Service	75,16,110	
		5. Woods, Forests, and Land-revenue.	44,68,010	
		6. Miscellaneous	403,05,040	
		Total* ...	7,524,91,760	23·7
4. Belgium ...	4,827,853	1. Taxes, direct and indirect ...	519,33,720	
		2. Post-office tolls	26,63,250	
		3. Railway, Telegraph, Crown lands.	269,51,400	
		4. Repayment of Loans	7,34,020	
		5. Sale of Crown lands	.....	
		Total* ...	822,82,390	
		Extra Revenue ...	195,75,190	
		Total ...	1,018,57,580	21·1
5. Spain ...	6,301,850	1. Taxes, direct	703,78,000	
		2. Do. indirect	478,84,700	
		3. Stamp duties	828,40,900	
		4. State property	425,73,770	
		5. Colonial Revenue	133,90,100	
		6. Miscellaneous Receipts	14,00,000	
		Total† ...	2,584,67,470	15·8
6. Italy ...	24,273,776	1. Land and House tax	634,48,920	
		2. Income and Assessed taxes ...	305,64,310	
		3. Succession and Registration ...	327,11,110	
		4. Customs, Consumption duties, and Monopolies.	1,213,31,410	
		5. Lottery and State property ...	316,29,530	
		6. Post-office and other Public Services.	126,71,820	
		7. Repayments and other Receipts.	142,80,630	
		8. Extraordinary Revenue	53,17,480	
		Total‡ ...	3,119,55,210	12·9

* Of 1871-72. † Of 1869. ‡ Of 1868.

Countries.	Population.	Revenue. Items.	Revenue. Amount.	Rate per Head.
			RS.	
7. Prussia ...	24,106,847	1. Income from Crown lands ...	314,44,710	
		2. Sale of lands and direct taxes including Land, House, Income, Class and Trade taxes, Railway dues and Miscellaneous.	643,83,000	
		3. Indirect taxes including Customs, Stamps, Meal and Slaughter tax, Turnpikes, Bridge, Harbour, River and Canal dues, and Miscellaneous.	283,60,850	
		4. Lottery, Bank, Mint, Press and Miscellaneous receipts.	153,19,670	
		5. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Commerce and Public Works.	891,06,030	
		6. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Justice. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Interior. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Agriculture. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical affairs. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of State. Revenue realised in the Department of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, including receipts from Hohenzolern Territory.	226,90,480	
		Total* ...	2,513,04,740	10·4
8. Russia ...	81,745,307	1. Taxes and Duties	6,337,82,110	
		2. Crown Revenue	340,05,240	
		3. Crown Domains	405,97,910	
		4. Miscellaneous Receipts	962,45,060	
		Total ...	8,046,30,320	9·8
9. Portugal ...	3,987,867	1. Direct Taxes	135,52,150	
		2. Indirect Taxes and Customs ...	187,58,080	
		3. National Domains and Miscellaneous Receipts.	51,78,960	
		4. Deduction from Civil Lists and Salaries.	88,890	
		Total* ...	375,78,080	9·4
10. Greece ...	1,332,508	1. Direct Taxes	46,25,000	
		2. Indirect Taxes	49,64,290	
		3. Telegraph and Post-office ...	2,87,140	
		4. Produce of National Property ...	10,03,930	
		5. Sale of National Property ...	3,89,280	
		6. Miscellaneous Receipts	2,35,720	
		7. Ecclesiastical Receipts	86,430	
		8. Arrears	3,75,350	
		Total† ...	119,67,140	8·9
11. Turkey ...	35,350,000	1. Poll-tax	272,88,410	
		2. Military Substitution	54,97,470	
		3. Tithes	394,47,680	
		4. Sheep, Swine, and Fish-tax ...	107,82,140	
		5. Customs, Tobacco, Stamps, and Spirits.	327,15,000	
		6. Contracts, Transfer Duties, and Miscellaneous taxes.	123,04,260	
		7. Post-office and Printing	10,19,340	
		8. State Fisheries, Domains, Forests, Farms, Salt Works, and Mines.	118,75,450	
		9. Tributes	42,09,520	
		10. Special Revenues of Ministry of Marine, Commerce, and Public Works.	7,59,020	
		Total* ...	1,458,98,290	4·1

* Of 1869. † Of 1868.

Course of exchange for the Presidency.

The two following statements will show approximately the course of exchange between different parts of the Presidency, and between this Presidency and others :—

Statement I.—Remittances by Cash and Bills received from and sent to the Bank of Madras and other Districts during 1878-79.

Districts.	Remittances from Districts.		Remittances from Bank of Madras to Districts.	Remittances between Districts.	
	To the Bank of Madras either in Cash or Bank Transfer.	Supply Bills granted on Payment of Money at Madras.		To what District.	From what District.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ganjam	5,80,000	30,000	...	93,000	...
Vizagapatam	3,50,000	32,000	22,000	...	...
Godavari	8,75,000	...	8,00,000	...	72,000
Kistna	29,30,000	5,900	...	...	21,000
Nellore	35,38,000	5,300	...	...	...
Cuddapah	20,24,000	32,400	32,500	27,500	3,21,000
Bellary	12,37,000	...	57,400	2,30,200	...
Kurnool	12,90,000	72,300	77,000	...	1,53,200
Madras	32,63,900	...	...	...	...
Chingleput	17,69,100	...	1,50,000	...	...
North Arcot	10,30,000	...	76,000	46,000	15,000
South Arcot	24,98,000	11,02,000	...	...	45,000
Tanjore	61,10,000	...	...	...	12,14,000
Trichinopoly	4,69,300	...	1,43,600	3,06,000	38,000
Madura	18,19,000	2,24,000	69,000	1,50,000	3,00,000
Tinnevelly	32,36,000	3,300	1,000	...	72,000
Coimbatore	8,40,000	...	...	5,06,000	8,30,000
Nilgiris	53,000	...	...	13,93,500	...
Salem	14,01,000	...	2,10,000	2,60,000	...
South Canara	3,90,000	...	1,000	...	4,40,000
Malabar	9,50,000	...	3,00,500	6,40,000	2,59,000
Bangalore	95,000	...	6,00,000	53,000	...
Travancore	3,56,000	...	...	75,000	...
Total ...	370,04,300	15,07,200	25,40,000	37,80,200	37,80,200

Statement II.—Remittances by Cash and Bills received from and sent to other Presidencies during 1878-79.

Districts.	Received from other Presidencies.	Sent to other Presidencies.
	Rs.	Rs.
Ganjam	...	6,61,000
Vizagapatam	...	4,00,000
Godavari	...	39,52,000
Kistna	...	4,92,800
Cuddapah	...	60,000
Bellary	...	3,58,700
Kurnool	...	1,60,500
North Arcot	...	15,000
South Arcot	...	1,00,000
Madura	...	2,50,000
Coimbatore	...	4,70,000
South Canara	...	4,00,000
Malabar	...	11,11,300
Bangalore	3,000	86,700
Bank of Madras	14,47,100	256,73,000
Total ...	14,50,100	341,91,000

SUB-SECTION II.—DETAILED INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

(1a.) IMPERIAL SERVICES, CIVIL.

GENERAL.

The general nature of these services has already been sufficiently indicated in the first paragraph of the introductory classification and remarks at head of the present Section. The funds are assigned for purposes which are regarded, artificially at any rate, as having an imperial interest, and in administering them the local Government may be considered as acting in the capacity of agents to the Government of India. The following are the heads of account as usually classified. The figures for an average year 1875-76 are given to furnish an idea of the average amounts in each case. In some instances a comparison can be made between the income and out-goings of the same department. In the sub-heads next ensuing will be given remarks as to the nature of the entries and the details of administration under the most important of the heads on each side. The treatment is not exhaustive from a financial point of view; and receipts and charges are mentioned together, which is contrary to technical practice :— Nature of the services.

Receipts.	RS.
Land Revenue	454,50,128
Tributes and Contributions ...	34,46,431
Forests	4,27,723
Excise on Spirits and Drugs ...	63,39,011
Assessed Taxes	481
Customs	30,79,620
Salt	135,37,890
Stamps	50,19,708
Mint	3,000
Law and Justice	4,33,791
Marine	12,495
Interest	2,69,774
Receipts in aid of Superannuation, &c.	24,42,342
Gain by Exchange, London ...	99,105
Miscellaneous	1,77,898
Total ...	807,39,397

Payments.	RS.
Interest on Service Funds, &c. ...	4,75,248
Refunds and Drawbacks	3,04,303
Land Revenue	44,48,139
Forests	4,30,182
Excise on Spirits and Drugs ...	1,97,035
Assessed Taxes	...
Customs	1,87,276
Salt	18,70,376
Stamps	1,36,730
Mint	29,307
Administration	12,24,436
Minor Departments	95,392
Law and Justice	36,19,583
Marine	73,029
Ecclesiastical	3,83,140
Medical	3,12,584
Political Agencies	1,19,399
Allowances and Assignments, &c. ...	24,50,643
Superannuation, &c., Allowances ...	15,39,399
Loss by Exchange, London ...	3,05,638
Miscellaneous	2,88,340
Allotments for Provincial Services.	83,55,701
Total ...	269,48,880

The following statement, showing the incidence per head of the population of each head of Imperial taxation roughly calculated with a Incidence of Imperial taxation.

view to all the circumstances for the same year, will indicate approximately the proportion between the amounts of the taxes :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Land Revenue	1	15	2
Excise on Spirits, &c.	0	3	2
Sea Customs on Population	0	1	5
Sea Customs on Europeans and Eurasians	14	13	1
Land Customs	0	0	2
Salt	0	6	11
Stamps	0	2	7

Land Revenue.

Nature of the entries.

The receipts under this head are revenues of which land is the primary source. They embrace all collections on account of settled demand, the principal items falling under Permanently settled, Ryotwar, Shotriem Jody, and Miscellaneous. The item "Permanently settled" consists of peishcush charged on Zemindaries, ancient and proprietary, Jaghires, Mootahs, and Polliems. "Ryotwary" means settlements made directly with the ryots. "Shotriem Jody" is quit-rent on Shotriem and Inam entire villages. Sale proceeds of waste lands, receipts of all kinds on account of redemption of land Revenue, and all items of Land Revenue which are not included in the annual Revenue Settlement, and which are of a fluctuating character, are shown as Miscellaneous Receipts. Pearl fisheries are included technically under Land Revenue. The gross revenue collected in the districts is brought to account; and the practice of liquidating stipendiary allowances, or making any other payments, by deductions from the State Revenue, is prohibited, except in cases where the special sanction of the Government has been received. The entire charges on account of salaries of Collectors, and their Deputies and Assistants, including establishments and contingencies; and the Settlement, Inam Commission, and Revenue Survey charges appear under this head. One-fifth of the cost of the Revenue and Magisterial establishments of Collectors and Deputy and Assistant Collectors is exhibited under "Law and Justice." One-half of the salaries of the Commissioner of the Nilgiris and his Assistant is debited to the present head, and the other half to "Law and Justice." A full description of the Land Revenue system of this Presidency, with a few statistics, has already been given under Section II.

Forest.

Nature of the entries.

The receipts here include sale of, and seigniorage on, timber, including drift and waif wood, rent of sandal-wood farms, sale of smuggled wood, &c. Fines under the Forest Law, when levied by Magisterial officers, are credited to "Law and Justice," and when levied by Forest Officers, without the interposition of the Magistrate, are credited to "Forest Revenue." The establishments, contingencies and working expenses of the Forest Department come here as charges. Establishments and

contingencies are paid for like any other cash charges; working expenses are defrayed by cheques drawn by Forest officers, the amounts being charged direct to the Forest grant, and adjusted in due course by detailed bills. Roads made exclusively for the development of Forest revenue are treated as Forest charges. Forest administration has been fully explained under Section IV.

Excise on Spirits, &c.

Nature of the entries.

This head, otherwise called Abkári, exhibits on the receipt side all taxes, duties, and fees levied on the manufacture, distillation, or sale of spirituous, intoxicating liquors and drugs. The charges are mainly for establishment and the cost of manufacturing or purchasing liquors in the town of Madras.

History of Abkári.

The practice of deriving a revenue from a tax upon the sale of intoxicating liquor appears to have been a very ancient one and to have existed under the Mussulman and Hindu Governments. In the earlier years of the present century there was considerable discussion as to the best mode of collecting the tax. In 1808 the first Abkári Regulation was passed, No. I of 1808; but owing to doubts as to the propriety of taxing toddy, the operation of this enactment was restricted to taxing the manufacture and sale of arrack, and the sale of foreign spirits. This Regulation provided that the annual rent of the exclusive privilege of selling foreign spirits and of manufacturing and selling arrack should be farmed, and that the places where distillation and sale should take place, as well as the retail prices at which the liquors should be sold, should be determined by the Collectors of districts, in communication with the Board of Revenue. In addition to this system of management Section 17 of the Regulation authorised the licensing of separate stills as an alternative mode, and when the Regulation was sent to the Collectors of districts they were recommended to make a trial of both plans of management. The licensing or out-still system however was adopted in Nellore, South Arcot and Trichinopoly only, and there only for a few years; in 1815-16 the renting system was in force throughout the Presidency, except within the abkári limits of the town of Madras. The rents, as a rule, included in practice the exclusive privilege of the sale of fermented toddy as well as of that of arrack, though there was no legal sanction for this course; therefore, as might have been expected, difficulties arose in regard to the realization of the former portion of the revenue. The Regulation was also found to be defective, as providing no legal punishment for breach of license. The amendment of the Regulation was finally resolved upon in 1819, and in the following year, No. I of 1820 was enacted, which rescinded No. I of 1808, and brought under a regular Government monopoly the tax on "rum, arrack or other

fermented liquors," providing that the exclusive manufacture and sale of these liquors should either be retained under the direct management of Government, or be rented out by them to farmers. The new Regulation permitted renters to sub-rent their farms and to recover their dues from the under-renters by summary process. Special provisions against the use of noxious ingredients in the manufacture of liquors and against irregularities in the liquor shops were introduced in this enactment. It also gave powers to the Board of Revenue to frame rules, from time to time, as occasion might require, for regulating the sale of all spirits whether country or foreign, and of toddy or other fermented liquors; for determining the places at which stills and shops should be erected, the retail rates of sale to be established, and the measures to be used, and generally for regulating matters relating to the detailed management and control of distilleries and shops. Passes were required under the Regulation for any quantity of liquor in transit in excess of one seer or bottle. The abkári revenue of the mofussil was managed under this enactment for forty-four years, or until the present Abkári Act, Madras No. III of 1864, became law. In 1841 the question whether a higher rate of taxation could not be imposed on arrack and toddy was considered, but the proposal was eventually abandoned, the district officers being merely enjoined to see that no liquor was sold below the minimum prices prescribed. The immediate cause of the enactment of the present Abkári law was a ruling of the late Sudder Court to the effect that foreign imported wines or beer did not come within the scope of Regulation I of 1820. This difficulty was met in the new enactment, and a few other amendments of the law were at the same time made. Among other things, powers were taken to levy the tax on liquors as an excise duty on the quantity manufactured, to admit free excise under certain circumstances, and to suppress the home manufacture of toddy where the privilege was abused or where it was likely to be used as a cloak for illicit sales. The abkári of the town of Madras is regulated by a special enactment, Act XIX of 1852, which provides for the direct management of this revenue by the Collector of Madras under the orders of the Board of Revenue. Act III of 1864 has recently been amended by Act VII of 1879. The amendments are principally in the direction of more stringent measures, for the repression of illicit distillation by rendering the mere possession of implements of manufacture and illicit liquor a penal offence, and the enlargement of the powers of the police and heads of villages for the detection of offences connected with the Abkári law; increased facilities are given to sub-renters for the recovery of their dues from shopkeepers, and the Board are empowered to prohibit sub-renting altogether where such a step may seem desirable. The new Act also empowers the Government

to exclude by notification the tract known as the "outside limits" round Madras from the operation of Act XIX of 1852, to enable this tract to be annexed to the Chingleput farm.

Present sources of taxation.

The present sources of the abkári revenue are (1) the tax upon the manufacture and sale of country-made spirits or arrack; (2) the tax upon the sale of date-toddy, palmyra-toddy, and cocoanut-toddy; (3) the proceeds of the licenses for the sale of country beer, and of European spirits, wines and beer; and (4) the receipts from fees for licenses for the distillation of spirits by the European process, and from breweries. The revenue is mainly derived at present from the first two items. The country spirit, which is in most general use throughout the Presidency, though called arrack, is, properly speaking, rum, as it is distilled from sugarcane-jaggery, palmyra-jaggery, date-jaggery and molasses, or from a combination of these substances together with a small quantity of acacia bark. The spirit consumed in every district, except Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godavari, Kistna, Kurnool, Malabar and South Canara, is distilled from these ingredients. Ganjam and the Coast taluks of Vizagapatam are at present rented to Messrs. Minchin and Co., and are supplied with rum from their sugar factory at Aska in the former district. In the hill tracts of these two districts, however, the spirit generally consumed is distilled from "mowah" flowers, and when they are not procurable from grain. In Godavari, Malabar and South Canara spirits are invariably distilled from toddy, and this is the case generally in the Kistna also, and parts of Kurnool.

Of the fermented liquors which are assessed to revenue, date-toddy is the fermented juice of the date palm. The juice is extracted by making an incision in the bark of the trees and letting it exude. It may be taken at any period of the year, but only for three months out of the twelve. Date-toddy is largely used in the Bellary District; it is also used in Kurnool, Cuddapah, Godavari, Ganjam and Vizagapatam, the upper portions of Salem and in parts of North Arcot. Palmyra-toddy is another description. This is obtained from the palmyra tree by cutting off the ends of the young shoots and squeezing them in a rude apparatus contrived for the purpose. After eight days of this process the juice begins to exude. The male trees produce toddy from January to April, and the female from February to May, and the produce is about two bottles per day during the season. These trees are to be found in almost every district, but they are most plentiful in the southern districts of the Eastern Coast. Cocoanut toddy is obtained from the cocoanut tree by the same process as the palmyra toddy, and the average produce is the same. The liquor may be drawn at any period of the year, but not for more than six months out of the twelve from each tree. Cocoanut toddy is very largely in demand in the

Tanjore district, in parts of Trichinopoly and in Canara and Malabar, but in other parts of the country it is not a beverage in general use, as the cocoanut groves are not so thickly spread over the country as to make it easily procurable. There is another fermented liquor in use in the Jeypore Zemindari termed souda which appears to be somewhat similar to the pachwai or rice-beer of Bengal. It is however made from ragi, not rice, and is often rendered highly intoxicating by the admixture of what is called a "liquor drug," made from a cold infusion of the roots of *Plumbago Zeylanica* and *Wrightia antidysenterica*, mixed with rice flour and dried. As above stated, the proceeds of license fees for the manufacture and sale of country beer and for the sale of European liquors are comparatively trifling. Previous to 1872 a revenue was derived from country brewed beer in the shape of license fees for manufacture and retail vend; in that year a duty of 1 anna per gallon was substituted for the brewing license fee. No restriction as to the places at which brewing might be carried on was imposed till 1875; but as the liquor sold under this name was found to contain noxious ingredients and was unwholesome, the permission to brew on the plains was withdrawn, the rate of excise was raised to 4 annas a gallon, and brewing was restricted to beer made of malt, hops and sugar only, the proportion of sugar and hops to be used in the manufacture being defined, and the alcoholic strength limited to 8 per cent. Recently, however, with a view to encourage the production of sound beer, the duty has been reduced to the original rate of 1 anna per gallon, on condition of its alcoholic strength not exceeding 6 per cent.

Arrack revenue in the mofussil.

The arrack revenue is managed in the mofussil, under Act III of 1864, in two different ways, by the farming system and by the excise system. In each case the system is worked as a monopoly, the exclusive privilege of manufacture and sale within defined tracts being assigned to the contractors; the monopoly is subject to the condition that liquor manufactured by the European process may be fully excised and brought into the market for sale on payment of the import rate of duty. The contracts under the farming system are disposed of at open auction sale. The contractors almost invariably sublet their contracts at a profit; sometimes, however, they adopt the system of apportioning the outside villages among a number of subrenters and of retaining the principal town of their tract in their own hands. Sometimes they are required to manage a particular taluk or town themselves, a limited number of stills only being allowed with a view to paving the way for the introduction of the excise system. About 1859-60 efforts were made by Government under the old law to place the farms in the hands of large capitalists by selling entire districts; after ten years' trial however the old system of taluk farms was reverted to, and this

still obtains in the non-excise districts. The excise system was first started experimentally in Ganjam in 1869, and in 1872 extended to Vizagapatam, South Arcot, Chingleput, and North Arcot. In Fasli 1285 the districts of Salem, Coimbatore, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Nilgiris, and the Bellary cantonment were also brought under the same system. From fasli 1288 the districts of Cuddapah, Bellary, Madura, Tinnevelly and part of Kurnool and the Wynad taluk of Malabar have been added, so that the farming system now obtains only in Godavari, Kistna, South Canara, the inland parts of Vizagapatam, the Head Assistant Collector's division of Kurnool and Malabar, except the Wynad taluk. Under the excise system, as under the farming system, the exclusive privilege of manufacture and sale is assigned to contractors selected on tender made after public notification. Distillation is permitted only at one or two selected places, at which sufficient guard and gauging establishments are maintained at the contractor's expense. The revenue under this system is taken in the shape of an excise duty on each gallon issued at rates defined with reference to strength, and to guard against loss of revenue the contractors guarantee that the excise payments shall reach a certain amount specified. The contract however as already stated does not include the privilege of manufacturing spirits by the European process, and vend of such spirits, the Government reserving to themselves the right of freely excising such liquor at the rate of duty in force on spirits imported by sea. In addition to the duty leviable in the several excise districts, a surcharge of duty is made upon liquor sold in shops within the limits of certain towns where the consumption of liquor is high and where the liquor-drinking classes can afford to pay a higher duty than the rural population. The system has been experimentally introduced into the towns of Vellore, Trichinopoly with Srirangam, Madura, Tinnevelly with Palamcottah, and Salem. Payments of excise are made monthly. Under either system the contractors make their own arrangements for obtaining material. The contractors are bound to keep accounts of receipts and disbursements, and of manufacture and issue of liquor, which are to be open to the inspection and examination of the officers of Government; to see that a sufficient number of hydrometers are supplied to the shops for testing the strength of the liquor sold so as to check dilution; to sell liquor only at the prescribed strengths, and at prices between certain maximum and minimum limits, to use proper measures and allow inspection of premises by officers of Government.

Toddy revenue in the mofussil.

The toddy revenue in the mofussil is also managed under Act III of 1864, but exclusively on the farming system, the rents being put up to public auction. The domestic manufacture of toddy except in the border mountains of South Canara and the agency tracts of Ganjam

and Vizagapatam is forbidden under Section 28 of the Act. The toddy rent was formerly in all cases joined with the arrack farms. But since 1875 it has been separated in all districts and given to distinct renters, except in Chingleput, where the arrack-renter was allowed to hold the toddy farm also till 1878. The toddy-renters obtain toddy from date and palmyra trees on Government waste land free of payment, but they must make their own arrangements with the owners of putta or Inam lands for the use of trees standing thereon. In districts where arrack is manufactured from toddy, the allotment of trees between the arrack and toddy-renters is at the Collector's discretion, and a clause in the contracts of both parties authorizes the arrack-renter to make his own arrangements for obtaining supplies of toddy.

Abkári in Madras Town.

The abkári of the town of Madras is managed on a system different from that in the mofussil, the revenue from both arrack and toddy being managed directly by Government officers, and being worked under Act XIX of 1852. The area to which it applies is defined as extending eight miles beyond the limits of the town proper or the High Court's original jurisdiction. The tract outside the town of Madras known as the "outside limits" was originally intended to interpose between the highly priced and highly taxed liquor consumed in the town and the cheap and more highly taxed liquor sold in the surrounding district of Chingleput, a belt of country in which the prices and taxation should be lower than in the former and higher than in the latter, so as to diminish the incentive to smuggle liquor into the town. But the taxation of liquor in Chingleput having been in recent years brought more up to the level of the town duty, the continuance of this measure of precaution was found unnecessary and has been abandoned, the tract having been amalgamated with the rest of the Chingleput District. The arrack system in the town of Madras is as follows. Country or puttai arrack is distilled from jaggery and acacia bark under contract on behalf of Government, and the liquor is brought from the contractor's godowns to the Deputy Collector's Office, where it is issued to the shop-keepers. The shop-keepers enter into an engagement called a dowle, wherein they agree to sell or at any rate pay the duty on certain quantities of liquor supplied to them daily from the Government stores. The revenue is obtained by issuing the liquor to the shop-keepers at a price higher than that at which it is obtained from the contractor, and the difference constitutes the duty. Colombo arrack, a superior liquor distilled from cocoanut-toddy, is also sold by Government. This is imported from Ceylon through a contractor, and sold at a profit to the shop-keepers. The duty on both Colombo and puttai arrack within the High Court limits are higher than the duty on imported spirits; the latter being thus protected. There are at present 48 Colombo and 93 puttai arrack shops. In the case of toddy

Government do not supply the liquor to the shop-keepers, but the shop-keepers obtain it themselves, under certain conditions imposed to ensure a revenue to Government. Thus each toddy shop-keeper who is licensed by the Government to do so enters into private engagements with the owners of gardens to draw toddy from the trees situated in those gardens. The Government officers are provided with a list of the gardens and trees which the shop-keeper thus proposes to utilize, and to make sure that no others are used they stamp the trees themselves with marks indicating the season for which toddy is to be drawn. When the shop-keeper has decided on the number of trees which he wishes to utilize, the Government fix a corresponding sum which he must pay daily as dowle or duty. As a rule the number of trees employed by a particular shop is constant, and the shops are arranged in four classes indicating the normal number of trees assigned to them. When extra trees are desired by the shop-keeper, these are allowed to be used at fixed rates, or on extra dowle as it is called. Toddy cannot be extracted from any tree until it has been stamped and registered by the abkári officers. Besides the permanent shops for the sale of date-toddy from 100 to 120 shops for the sale of palmyra-toddy are opened in the three months when the palmyra trees yield. The establishment maintained for the management of the Madras town abkári costs about Rupees 24,200 per annum. Besides the sources of revenue just mentioned a small revenue is derived in Madras from license fees, for retail vend of European spirits, wines and beer, the rates being Rupees 100 and 50 per annum according to classification by the Collector with reference to the extent of the transactions. No license is required for wholesale vend in the town of Madras. In the mofussil the fee for a wholesale license is Rupees 25 and for a retail license Rupees 15 per annum. The fee for a license to distil by the European process is Rupees 100. The abkári of the Jeypore country in Vizagapatam district, with the exception of Koraput, hill Pachipenta and hill Magdole, which are rented out, is under Government management. Prior to 1868, the whole of Jeypore was rented out, but in consequence of grave irregularities and illegal exactions on the part of the renter, it was determined to discontinue the renting system. Liquor is now manufactured and sold by persons specially licensed for the purpose in consideration of an annual payment. The liquor is manufactured from rice, ragi and the mohwa flower. Toddy is drawn from sago palm and date.

Progress of the revenue.

In the year 1800-1, the amount realized by abkári throughout the Presidency was little over two lakhs of rupees, but in 1807-8 it had risen to upwards of six lakhs, and during the following three years it rose to nearly nine lakhs. From that year up to 1832-33, when the revenue stood at upwards of 18 lakhs, there was a steady

annual rise except in 1824-25, which was a year of scarcity, and when a check was received which lasted for the five following years. In 1832-33 the average price of unhusked rice of the second sort rose from 66 seers to 45 seers per rupee, and in the following year to 36 seers. During this period occurred a very serious famine in Guntoor and the other northern districts, and the effects were at once visible on the abkári collections, which fell from 18 lakhs to 16 lakhs, and then to little over 14 lakhs. Though prices fell subsequently to their former rates, the abkári revenue did not recover till the year 1842-43, when it stood again at a little under 18 lakhs. From this year up to 1855-56, when the revenue touched 22½ lakhs, there was a regular increase, year by year, except in the two years of scarcity, 1846-47 and 1854-55. The abkári revenue rose from the 22½ lakhs noted above to upwards of 30 lakhs in 1860-61, to nearly 42 lakhs in 1865-66, and to nearly 61 lakhs in 1869-70. Thus in fourteen years this branch of the revenue increased nearly threefold. The greater part of the increase is owing to the enhanced taxation on spirituous and fermented liquors resulting from the keen competition among abkári farmers at the different auction sales, but it is also due to increased consumption. Since 1870-71 there has been a slight falling off in the abkári revenue.

		Rs.
Fasli 1280	(1870-71)	57,05,529
„ 1281	(1871-72)	58,75,650
„ 1282	(1872-73)	60,27,818
„ 1283	(1873-74)	60,71,260
„ 1284	(1874-75)	59,08,586
„ 1285	(1875-76)	64,90,203
„ 1286	(1876-77)	51,98,980
„ 1287	(1877-78)	48,11,535

The annexed statement shows the current demand for Fasli 1287 (1877-78) in the several districts :—

Districts.	Revenue.		
	Toddy.	Arrack.	Total.
Farming System.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Godavari	82,995	1,95,251	2,78,246
Kistna	64,370	1,73,250	2,37,620
Cuddapah	13,508	2,16,331	2,29,839
Bellary District	3,54,800	3,01,950	6,56,750
Kurnool	90,830	1,36,700	2,27,530
Madura	71,362	1,71,471	2,42,833
Tinnevelly	44,050	1,37,000	1,81,050
South Canara	59,800	80,250	1,40,050
Malabar	99,000	1,55,400	2,54,400
Total	8,80,715	15,67,603	24,48,318
Excise—Old Excise Districts.			
Ganjam	9,966	71,913	81,879
Vizagapatam	37,693	1,30,102	1,67,795
Chingleput	1,12,772	62,228	1,75,000
North Arcot	1,20,580	2,42,000	3,62,580
South Arcot	1,30,000	1,24,000	2,54,000
Total	4,11,011	6,30,243	10,41,254

Districts.	Revenue.		
	Toddy.	Arrack.	Total.
Excise—New Excise Districts.			
	RS.	RS.	RS.
Nellore	17,775	61,000	78,775
Bellary Cantonment	...	1,21,501	1,21,501
Tanjore	3,23,000	86,512	4,09,512
Trichinopoly	37,006	1,10,000	1,47,006
Coimbatore	90,900	1,08,905	1,99,805
Nilgiris	...	84,157	84,157
Salem	1,27,730	1,35,286	2,63,016
Total ...	5,96,411	7,07,361	13,03,772
Special Amani.			
Madras Town	3,31,343	8,41,783	11,73,126
Grand Total ...	22,19,480	37,46,990	59,66,470

Assessed Taxes.

Nature of the funds.

This head is opened for collections under assessed taxes levied imperially. When the income-tax was in force the receipts consisted of collections levied on personal incomes, profits, &c. The income-tax was first introduced in 1860, discontinued in 1865, revived in 1869, and discontinued again in 1872. The rate varied from year to year, and in 1871-72 it was 1 per cent. and affected only incomes exceeding 750 Rupees per annum. The revenue from income-tax raised in this Presidency between 1860 and 1871 was as shown at foot. In 1872-73 the tax was levied on incomes exceeding Rupees 1,000 per annum at 2 pies in the rupee or $1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent. under Act VIII of 1872. The tax was collected by the land revenue establishments, but a small additional expenditure was incurred every year on account of the salaries of clerks employed for keeping accounts and assisting the Collectors in issuing processes. The corresponding tax now in force is the License-tax under Act III of 1878, with corresponding departmental arrangements. The following are the figures for the income-tax :—

		RS.
1860-61	4 per per cent. and 2 per cent. on incomes above 500 rupees below that.	5,42,914
1861-62	Do. do.	25,48,110
1862-63	3 per cent.	23,18,250
1863-64	Do.	16,46,522
1864-65	Do.	14,65,652
1865-66	... ...	36,70,548
1866-67	... ...	13,911
1867-68	... ...	215
1868-69	... ...	...
1869-70	1½ per cent.	11,58,531
1870-71	3⅛ per cent.	22,33,147
1871-72	$1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent.	9,88,593

CUSTOMS.

Nature of the entries.

Transit, Import, and Export duties, and Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures in the Customs Department are shown as receipts under this head. It is sub-divided into two sections, Sea Customs and Land Customs; the first including Import and Export duties, and the second Transit and Frontier duties. The charges exactly correspond.

Sea Customs.

Customs procedure is regulated by Act VIII of 1878. Duties on goods imported from and exported to foreign countries are levied under the tariff and rates prescribed in Act XVI of 1875. No duties are collected on goods carried by sea from one British Indian port to another except salt, salted fish, opium, and spirits. The duties are collected by special establishments maintained at each port, and are controlled by the Collectors of land revenue, except at the town of Madras, where there is a special Collector of Sea Customs. This officer has also charge of the land revenue, &c., of the town, but his chief work consists in supervising sea customs, and his salary is debited to that head. The following is the procedure adopted for the levy of customs duties. As soon as a vessel arrives at a port, the master gives to the officer in charge of the Custom-house a manifest, in which is entered all the cargo he has got on board the vessel, distinguishing goods to be landed at the port; and also the port clearance or any other similar paper granted to the vessel at the port whence she came. A general permit to land the goods as per manifest is then granted. A register is kept of all permits granted. With each boat landing cargo a boat-note is sent by the Commander of the vessel and a file of boat-notes thus sent is also kept. This acts as a guarantee that no cargo other than what was entered in the manifest is landed, for the boat-notes are checked with the manifest. After the cargo is landed an application or bill of entry is put in, and on payment of duty leviable the cargo is passed. On application to export goods, a permit is granted accordingly, and boat-notes are given to carry cargo as per permit. Before the vessel sails or, if a guarantee has been given, then within five days after the vessel has sailed the master or agent gives an export manifest in duplicate in which the description, quantity, &c., of the cargo he has taken on board for exportation are entered. This document, the boat-notes, and the shipping bills are all checked with each other, and the manifest is signed and returned to the master or agent, the duplicate copy being retained for record.

Sea Customs collections of fifteen years.

The customs duty collected during the fifteen years ending 1875-76 is shown below:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
	RS.	RS.
1861-62	13,63,746	7,07,910
1862-63	10,71,349	6,82,148
1863-64	13,00,505	7,17,286

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
	Rs.	Rs.
1864-65	11,18,870	6,67,535
1865-66	12,08,080	7,41,280
1866-67	13,67,250	5,61,180
1867-68	14,78,360	8,59,980
1868-69	16,02,130	10,14,790
1869-70	16,58,390	9,07,880
1870-71	17,92,484	10,36,885
1871-72	16,28,128	12,86,629
1872-73	16,34,532	10,90,191
1873-74	17,48,128	13,71,595
1874-75	16,80,788	12,25,272
1875-76	17,84,205	9,75,128

Land-customs duty, otherwise called Sâyer, is levied on four small inland customs lines only, namely, on cordons drawn round the four French sea-board settlements of Yanam in the Godavari, Pondicherry in South Arcot, Karikal in Tanjore, and Mahé in Malabar. No other frontiers are taxed. The rates of duty charged are the same as those applicable to articles imported from or exported to foreign countries by sea. The duty is collected by establishments posted on the frontiers. At the Customs Stations situated on principal roads ths Superintendents take toll. At various other out-stations the police stop persons carrying dutiable articles, and conduct them to the Customs Stations. The settlements just named have little or no Sea Customs of their own. In the absence of a British Land Custom line therefore goods would pass into India free. The receipts and charges during the five years ending 1875-76 were as shown below :— Land Customs.

Years.	Receipts.	Charges.
	Rs.	Rs.
1871-72	2,04,233	12,044
1872-73	1,96,117	14,267
1873-74	2,19,313	15,488
1874-75	2,64,000	15,007
1875-76	2,85,762	15,144

Salt.

The sale proceeds of salt, and collections connected with the salt monopoly, including departmental fines and fines imposed and collected by the Criminal Courts as punishments for infractions of the Laws relating to the Salt Revenue and refunds on account of unexpended charges, &c., and the excise duty levied upon salt manufactured and sold under license by private persons in the South Canara District are shown as receipts under this head. Sea and land customs duty on salt is also brought to account under this head. To this head are debited charges connected with the manufacture and storing of salt and of its superintendence; the salary and allowances of fixed and temporary officers employed in the Department, with their Nature of the entries.

establishments and contingencies; charges for police guards; the compensation paid for lands taken up for the manufacture of salt; and other ordinary and extraordinary expenditure arising out of the trade. The construction and repair of petty works exclusively for the benefit of the department or for the convenience of the traders and others resorting to the Salt Depôts on business are also here debited.

General view of salt-administration.

The Government salt monopoly was created by Regulation I of 1805, which at first applied to the whole of the Madras Presidency with the exception of the districts of Malabar and Canara. Regulation II of 1807 extended the provisions of the law, with certain modifications, to those two districts. This regulation was in its turn repealed from November 1, 1877, by the introduction into the West Coast districts of Madras Act VI of 1871, the Salt Excise Act, under which the manufacture of salt on private account was there permitted on certain conditions and subject to the provision that an excise duty should be paid to Government on all salt passed into consumption. With the exception just noted for the West Coast districts the manufacture of salt is prohibited throughout the Presidency except on account of Government.

Government monopoly system.

Under the old system salt is only made under the orders and control of the Government officers; and on the delivery of the salt, which is received by weight, the Government pay the manufacturers for it at rates varying partly on account of the local rates of labor and partly on account of private rights in the soil from 8 pies (in the case of the semi-spontaneous salt of Pandraka in the Kistna District) to 3 annas and 6·8 pies per Indian maund of 82⅔ lb. The salt is resold to the public at or near the places where it is manufactured at a certain price fixed by law, which at present is two rupees eleven annas per maund throughout the Presidency. Of this selling price rupees 2-8-0 is the duty imposed by Act XVIII of 1877, which corresponds in amount to the Customs duty levied on salt imported, by sea or by land, from foreign countries, and to the excise duty paid, as before mentioned, on all salt manufactured in the South Canara district by private persons on its sale for consumption; and 3 annas is the charge made on account of the cost of manufacture and storage.

The new excise system.

The details of the new excise system, already in force as said on the West Coast, and proposed to be introduced hereafter on the East Coast also, are as follows. Licenses to manufacture can be claimed as a matter of right by the proprietor of any salt work which has been worked within five years of the introduction of the excise system, and can only be refused in case the average outturn of the work for the last three years has been under 5,000 maunds. Licenses may also be granted for the opening of new Salt-works in localities approved by

the Commissioner of Salt Revenue. No applications have as yet been received to this effect. Licensed manufacturers are bound to conduct their operations within a line of guards maintained by the Government and under regulations as to inspection by the Government Officers, ingress to and egress from the works, &c., prescribed by the Board of Revenue for the security of the Revenue. Salt manufactured under license is stored and guarded in the same way as salt manufactured under the monopoly system, save that each manufacturer's salt is kept apart instead of all being brought into a common store. The Government Officers in no way interfere with the sale of excise salt. The owner is free to sell it when, to whom and for what price he chooses, subject only to the payment of the stipulated rent for storage room, to the weighment of the salt at the time of sale in the presence of the Government Officers, and to the payment by the purchasers of duty at the rate of 2½ rupees per maund before the salt is removed beyond the line of guards. So far as it has gone, the system has worked satisfactorily, though with the somewhat unexpected result that the cost price to the public of excised salt is about double that of monopoly salt. This, however, is due to the fact that in the South Canara District, where alone manufacture has hitherto been conducted under the excise system, the local manufacturers are quite unable to meet the demand and are consequently able to obtain for their produce prices corresponding more nearly to the cost of the imported salt upon which the people mainly depend for their supplies, than to the actual cost of its manufacture. It does not follow that the same result would accrue if the excise system were extended over a wider area. In South Canara the smallness of the local manufacture renders effective competition impossible. If the salt-works throughout the Presidency or any considerable number of them in one locality were worked under the excise system competition would doubtless keep down the price of salt as it does that of other commodities, the manufacture of which is free to all who choose to engage in it. Whether the ultimate result would be further general benefit remains a debatable question. In favor of monopoly for the Presidency at large it is to be observed that under it an enormous revenue is easily collected and a fair rate of consumption attained, whilst the people are supplied with a fairly good article, believed to be quite wholesome, at a reasonable price. The advantages claimed for excise consist in a possible improvement of quality and an infinitesimal cheapening of salt to the consumer. The cheapening may be described as infinitesimal, for if the full benefit of the estimated reduction in the cost of production, viz., 6 pies per maund, is reaped by the consumer, it only amounts to ·037 of a farthing per pound, taking the average retail price at Rupees 3-5-0 per maund and the

rupee at two shillings. The change involves the destruction of a system which has existed for over seventy years, and which is deeply rooted in the prejudices of the people.

Swamp salt and earth salt.

Swamp or spontaneous salt, where met with, is destroyed by the Government officials. An exception is Pandraka in the Kistna, and Vedarniem in the Tanjore District, where it is largely collected and sold on behalf of Government at the same rate as salt manufactured on account of the monopoly. In the districts of Bellary, Cuddapah and Kurnool, notwithstanding the salt regulations, the private manufacture of earth salt by lixiviating saline soils was till lately permitted. The practice had grown up gradually and was recognized by Government in consideration of the great distance of those districts from the coast and of the hardships that would be entailed on the inhabitants by making them depend entirely on marine salt. A small tax in the nature of moturpha was levied in Kurnool and Bellary, but in Cuddapah the manufacture was quite free. These concessions were found seriously to injure the Government monopoly, and the extension of the railway to those districts having placed marine salt within the reach of the people, it was determined in 1870 gradually to suppress the manufacture. Arrangements were accordingly made by which earth salt was to be taxed in Cuddapah as well as in Bellary and Kurnool, and by which the tax was to be gradually raised until 1879, when it was considered that it would amount to the full duty paid upon marine salt, and that the cost of earth salt would thus be so greatly enhanced that its manufacture would no longer be profitable and would gradually die out. On trial, however, these arrangements were found to be difficult to work and to be inadequate for the protection of the revenue. In the latter part of 1878, the complete suppression of the manufacture of earth salt throughout the whole Presidency was determined on; and this resolution was brought into effect from the beginning of 1879. Measures are under consideration for the destruction of the earth salt works and for compensating their owners for the loss they have sustained by the suppression of the industry.

Exports and imports of salt.

The only coast district where no salt is manufactured for sale under any system is Malabar. The supply required for this district and for South Canara, where the supply of locally manufactured salt is insufficient, is brought from Bombay, Goa, Damaun and Arabia by private merchants, and sold by them on their own account in the same way as any other article of food supply which is liable to import duty and which can be bonded pending sale. A considerable export trade in salt from this Presidency for sale at Calcutta, Chittagong, Penang, and other places at one time existed and was fostered by the supply of surplus salt by the Government for export at most unremunerative

rates. The recent adoption, however, of the monopoly selling price of Rupees 2-11-0 per maund for salt intended for export has practically extinguished this trade; a matter not greatly to be regretted as there is a continually increasing difficulty in the manufacture of sufficient salt on the East Coast to meet the requirements of the Presidency itself. Salt is supplied to the French authorities at prime cost for sale at prices similar to British prices to the inhabitants of the French Settlements, French manufacture having been put a stop to under certain Conventions and in consideration of certain compensation, as already explained in an earlier portion of this Volume. The whole of Mysore and a part of the Nizam's territories and of the southern and eastern portions of the Central Provinces are also supplied with salt taken by private trade from this Presidency.

Organization of the department.

The monopoly used to be administered by the Collectors of districts under the orders of the Board of Revenue. They were aided by a separate establishment for the superintendence of manufacture and sale, consisting of a Deputy Collector for each maritime district assisted by subordinate officials. For various reasons this arrangement was not found to work satisfactorily. The other important duties of Collectors prevented their devoting sufficient attention to the manufacture of salt and to the collection of the Salt Revenue; and the division of responsibility according to local areas resulted in a want of system, unity, and economy in the working of the Salt Department. From the middle of 1878 the Collectors were relieved of their duties in this respect, and the administration of the department throughout the Presidency entrusted to an officer styled the Commissioner of Salt Revenue. The establishments formerly employed under the Collectors were at the same time placed under the orders of this officer, and have since been strengthened by the appointment of a subordinate called the Deputy Commissioner of Salt Revenue, Northern Division, who exercises throughout the five Northern Districts of the Presidency the full powers formerly entrusted to Collectors with regard to the manufacture and sale of salt, subject to the control of the Commissioner. A similar appointment is about to be made with the object of relieving the Commissioner of the details of the administration in the Southern Districts also. The Commissioner of Salt Revenue is subordinate to the Board of Revenue in the same manner as Collectors. There are 60 Salt Factories and Depôts in the Presidency. A few of these consist of two or three "Stations" or Branches under the control of a single officer designated Salt Superintendent. The Salt Superintendents are officials paid as a rule from Rupees 50 to Rupees 100 a month; though in a few cases the salaries run down to Rupees 40 and up to Rupees 200. The following is the list of Factories, Stations, and Depôts at the present moment:—

District.	Factories.	Stations.	Depots.
Ganjam	Ganjam.		
	Surla.		
	Nowpada.		
	Calingapatam.		
Vizagapatam ...	Kuppili.		
	Konada.		
	Bimlipatam.		
	Karasa		
	Balacheruvu.		
	Pentakottah.		
Godavari	Penuguduru.		
	Mogaltur.		
Kistna	Pandraka.		
	Mangivapudi.		
	Nizampatam.		
	Chinna Ganjam.		
Nellore	Kanuparti.		
	Padarti	Devarampad.	
	Pakala	Bingivapalli.	
	Tummalapenta.		
	Iskapalli.		
	Gogulapalli.		
	Kistnapatam.		
	Dugarazpatam.		
	Tada.		
	Sunnapagunta.		
Chingleput ...	Kattur	Kadapakam. Serupulicat.	Madras.
	Voyalur	Kattupalli.	
	Pulidiwak	Kattupalli.	
	Attiput	Ennore.	
	Vallur	Vichur. Kuttivakam.	
	Vadasamanjeri.		
	Covelong	Kelambakam.	
	Cheyur.		
South Arcot ...	Merkanam	Chunampet. Kandadu.	
	Gundalam	Pachayankuppam ... Kudikadu. Manavari. Kamblimodu.	Cuddalore.
Tanjore	Manambadi.		
	Neidavasal.		
	Tranquebar.		
	Negapatam.		
	Vedarniam.		
	Adrampatam	Magalankottai.	
	Thambikkottai	Thamarankottai.	
	Kattumavadi.		
	Arasanagiri.		
Madura	Vattanam	Thithandathanam.	
	Vyravanadapatam.		
	Attenkarai.		
	Morekolam.		
	Muthuregunathapatam.		
Tinnevelly	Vaipar.		
	Arasadi		
	Levingepuram	Tuticorin. Sevandakolam.	
	Kayalpatam.		
	Kuttanguli.		
South Canara ...	Harnad.		
	Angoli.		
	Vaderhobli.		

Public works. The execution of petty construction and repair works for the salt department is generally entrusted to the Revenue Department, and forms an important part of its duties.

Details of manufacture of Government salt. In the Madras Presidency Government salt is manufactured exclusively by solar evaporation. The places of manufacture by this process on behalf of Government are certain localities along the Coromandel Coast, determined on generally as being the site of the manufacture before the creation of the monopoly, and also with regard to the nature of the soil, which should be a stiff clay, and with

reference to the convenience of the buying community. It is usually considered more desirable to extend the manufacture at one place, than to open a new ground. The more numerous the localities, the greater is the risk of smuggling, and the greater the expense of the establishment. A considerable part of the line of coast from Ganjam to Cape Comorin is available for salt manufacture. The area of the existing salt pans, roads, storage grounds, channels and reservoirs included, is about 27,000 acres. Land suitable for their extension or for the formation of new works is in many places available to much more than an equal extent. The salt is manufactured from the saline water of the back-waters, or salt inlets that abound along the coast. Channels are cut from the inlet, and the water is baled up by the native picottah or other primitive contrivance into shallow reservoirs made by banking up the ground. When the brine has, after some days, been to a certain degree evaporated and condensed, it is let off into still shallower banked-up enclosures or pans, the clay floors of which have been hardened by treading and ramming. Here it is allowed to undergo a process of evaporation. As evaporation progresses the brine gradually condenses and reaches the points of saturation, first, of Sulphate of Calcium (Plaster of Paris), then of Chloride of Sodium or common salt, and lastly of Sulphate of Magnesium (Epsom Salts) and other deleterious substances which, with those above mentioned, are contained in all sea-water. During the second of the stages of saturation salt is deposited on the clay floors of the pans in pure white cubic crystals, the size, solidity and hardness of which increase with the depth of the brine in which they are formed and deposited. The art of the manufacturer is then to scrape up these crystals from off the black clay floor without soiling them, and before the condensation of the brine has proceeded far enough for the deposit of the deleterious and more soluble salts of magnesium, &c. which it contains. This is done with considerable skill and with no aid from scientific appliances for ascertaining the degree of saturation to which the brine has attained. The salt scraped is then heaped on the raised platform for a month or six weeks to dry; brine being again let into the pans and another coating of salt being scraped off. This proceeds for 4 or 5 times as the weather permits. The pans are then drained completely dry of the residuum of brine or "mother liquor" which is by this time highly charged with magnesic salts. They are then re-trod and re-rammed and the process above described is repeated. This continues until the monsoon sets in and floods the pans or until the quantity of salt required has been made. In many places, pits or shallow wells are excavated in the earth near the sea, and the water is drawn off from these instead of from creeks and inlets. On an average the outturn of salt may be said to be about 45 tons per acre

of evaporating surface per season, but every thing depends on the weather, and a fall of rain a few days earlier or later may make a difference of two or three hundred per cent. in the produce. Soils also differ, some retaining the brine much better than others. The mode of manufacture also is subject to variations. The manufacturers are opposed to suggestions of improvement or it is possible better salt and more of it could be made.

Season. The time for commencing the preparation of the pans is the beginning of January. Previous to this the Commissioner of Salt Revenue arranges how much salt is required to be made that season, and the pans are appertioned out accordingly, each man engaging to supply a certain quantity. The first scraping of salt takes place some five or six weeks after the commencement of operations in preparing the pans, and successive scrapings take place at intervals till about July, when the rains generally put a stop to the manufacture. The season is occasionally such as to allow the manufacture to be carried on till September.

Storing and depôts. The scraped salt is heaped up by the side of the salt pans, and when dry is removed to depôts close by. There it is weighed and placed on raised platforms, in heaps of from 45 to 135 tons (10 to 30 garces, the garce equalling 120 Indian Maunds). The heaps are as a general rule covered with a thick coating of earth and clay. In South Arcot, Chingleput and the Northern Circars the heaps are thatched with grass, straw or palmyra leaves. In Canara and Malabar the heavy rains of the south-west monsoon render necessary the storage both of the locally manufactured and of the imported salt in weather-proof buildings. These last are mostly thatched, though some of the bonded warehouses at the principal ports are of more substantial materials. On the East Coast the rule is that the salt is stored close to the pans in which it is made; here all the salt manufactured is stored, and here the purchasers must come to buy. But in the Chingleput District the pans have no roads near them passable for carts, and the sales are so extensive that a large gathering of traders, close to the place of manufacture, would encourage smuggling. The salt from these pans is therefore brought from distances varying from ten to twenty-three miles by Cochrane's and the Junction and Southern Canals to the central depôt near the western wall of Black Town. This arrangement is also more convenient for purchasers, as the depôt is close to the railway, a siding from which runs into it. The merchants are in this case enabled to load their purchases direct on to the railway wagons and are saved all charges for cartage.

Manufacturers. The persons who manufacture the salt are socially in the same position as the ordinary village ryot; but in general they are, or ought

to be, in better circumstances, inasmuch as a salt pan is a more valuable property than an ordinary grain land occupancy of the same extent. Labor however in the salt pans is not popular as the work is exceedingly hard, and has to be performed in the very hottest season of the year; there are also many difficulties in connection with the supply of food and water. Pure drinking-water is almost unattainable in many places along the barren tract of coast where the salt factories are situated. In some cases the manufacturers are the descendants, or heirs, or purchasers of the rights, of the manufacturers who were found so occupied in the making of salt when Government assumed the monopoly. Previous to the monopoly, the salt-producing grounds in the Northern Circars were farmed out or rented like other lands; but in some parts of the Carnatic the salt produce or its value in money was divided between the Circar and the cultivator. On first assuming the monopoly the Government recognized in such cases a Meerás, or private property in the soil, and allowed the salt ryots their share, or Kudivaram, at the accustomed rate, and pledged themselves to give compensation in case the pans then at work were discontinued by order of Government, unless the propriety of closing arose from misbehaviour on the part of the Meerassidars, or from their not manufacturing a requisite quantity. In opening new pans, a written agreement is now entered into with the manufacturers, by which they admit the right of Government to close the works when they please without compensation. Every proprietor of a pan is registered under Clause 3, Section IV, Regulation I of 1805; and when Government extend the manufacture at any one locality, the preference is usually given to the villagers to take up the pans, but if they cannot do so on account of want of capital or other causes, the Government dispose of the pans to whom they please. Persons having pans, but refusing to manufacture or only giving in a quantity far below the proper yield, are liable to have their pans taken away. Under ordinary circumstances, however, a salt pan is recognized as real property, alienable by sale or otherwise. The manufacturers are paid for their salt at the fixed rate per garce of 120 Indian Maunds (= 4·4 tons) as soon as it has been weighed into store in the Government Depôt. Each manufacturer has his salt brought in separately; and an individual account is kept of what he has supplied, though each man's supply is not stored separately. All wastage, previous to the weighment at the depôt, is at the loss of the manufacturer. He is not paid for all he makes, but for what is brought to the depôt and weighed into store.

Payments to manufacturers.

The rates of Kudivaram have developed considerably, the average having risen from Rupees 0-1-0·9 per maund in 1855 to Rs. 0-1-5·8 in 1879. The maximum present rate is 3 annas 6·8 pies a maund

in a very few specially privileged pans in the Chingleput district. The ryots were relieved in 1862 of the cost of all except the most petty works belonging to the salt operations, which was tantamount to a substantial enhancement of the Kudivaram. An attempt was made by the Commission which sat in 1876 to investigate the administration of the Madras Salt Department to ascertain the extent by which the Kudivaram exceeds the cost of production, and the conclusion arrived at was that the cost and manufacturer's profit, the items representing which under monopoly may be estimated to average 1 anna 10 pies per maund for East Coast salt, might be reduced by competition to the extent of 6 pies per maund or more. But this observation has not been confirmed.

Cost to Government.

Taking the East Coast by itself, the Salt Commission just mentioned calculated the cost of the salt to Government, including the charge for general supervision, at 3 annas 5·6 pies, and the excise realized thereon at Rupees 1-12-6·4 per maund, the selling price at the time being Rupees 2 per maund. The items of which they considered the cost to be composed are noted below :—

	Per Maund. A.	P.
Land Assessment	0	0·1
Payment to manufacturers	1	5·7
Works for salt manufacture	0	1·5
Establishment	0	6·5
Contingencies	0	0·6
Police	0	5·8
Miscellaneous	0	3·5
Works for storage and revenue purposes	0	1·2
Sundry works	0	0·5
Interest on value of salt	0	1·2
Total	3	2·6
General supervision	0	3·0
Total	3	5·6

This calculation proceeded on the hypothesis that if the existing monopoly were supplanted by the excise system provided for by Madras Act VI of 1871 the licensees would be required to defray, in addition to the actual cost of making and storing the salt, all charges incurred by the Government in the prevention of smuggling from the factories and depôts, and in the collection of the duty levied on the salt on its passing into consumption; and that therefore in calculating the cost to the Government of the manufacture and sale of salt under the existing monopoly system, it was right to debit them as manufacturers with the same charges which would be incurred by the licensees under the hypothetical excise system above sketched.

But the excise system actually established in South Canara and proposed to be established elsewhere differs from the imaginary one on which the Commission of 1876 based their arguments in that the licensees are not charged with the cost of guarding the factories and depôts or of the establishments employed by the Government in the collection of the revenue. They have to bear only the cost of manufacture (including the construction and maintenance of the canals and other works), storage, wastage, sale, and the assessment of the lands occupied by their factories. The same limitations must be applied to the Government, in their capacity of salt manufacturers. If this is done, and the above stated charges for establishments and Police are eliminated, the cost of the Government salt will be found to be reduced to 2 annas and 5·3 pies per maund on the average of the factories of the East Coast.

Sale of salt at the depôts.

The sale of salt at the depôts is free to every body, and salt can be bought for cash at the fixed rate in as small a quantity as one maund. The persons who come to the depôts for salt to supply the neighbouring districts are usually people of the country. Those who purchase salt to convey to a far distance, or to Native States, are usually Lumbadies or Brinjarries, a wandering race of petty traders in grain and salt, who possess large herds of cattle, and convey the salt away on these or on donkeys. The channels from the Godavari afford a convenient mode of transport by boats in the delta of Rajahmundry. The Eastern and Southern portions of the Central Provinces are chiefly supplied from Ganjam; the remainder by rail from Bombay. The Nizam's territories are supplied chiefly from the depôts in the Kistna District and in the north of Nellore. In the town of Madras the salt-selling trade is conducted on quite a different basis from what it is in any other part of the Presidency. From all other depôts the interior is supplied by more or less petty consignments and chiefly by road or canal; by rail only in a few instances. From Madras salt is rarely removed into the interior save by rail, and this in large quantities at a time. The Madras trade in fact is entirely in the hands of a few wholesale dealers, who have their own depôts up-country whence they supply the local merchants and bazaar men. Their transactions are greatly facilitated by and indeed almost entirely conducted upon a system under which Government allows them six months' credit for their purchases upon deposit of adequate security. The same system is in force throughout the Presidency, but is rarely taken advantage of except at Madras, as the smallest sum for which a credit is granted is Rupees 5,000, and few dealers at other places are willing or able to undertake at one time transactions of this magnitude.

Government price.

The price at which the Government sell at their depôts to the dealers, is, as already mentioned, Rupees 2-10-0. The selling price fixed at

the commencement of the British rule was 9 annas 4 pies a maund from which it has risen to its present level by the gradations, sometimes general and sometimes partial, as shown below:—

Year.	Price. Rs. A. P.
1805	0 9 4
1809	0 14 0
1820	0 9 4
1828	0 14 0
1843 to 1845	1 8 0
	1 0 0
1859 to 1861	1 0 0
	1 2 0
	1 6 0
	1 8 0
1866	1 11 0
1870	2 0 0
1874	2 0 0
	2 2 0
	2 3 0
	2 4 0
	2 5 0

Retail price of dealers, &c.

It is of course difficult to give the actual retail price of monopoly salt as sold by the dealers in town and village bazaars; but probably Rupees 3-5-0 per maund, or something under one penny a lb., taking the rupee at two shillings, may be regarded as the price at which on the average the people of this Presidency consume sea salt. The trader's profit may, perhaps, be set down at on the average about 4 annas per maund. The low range of retail prices is attributed to the exceptional advantages as regards facilities of communication which this Presidency possesses; to the circumstances of the trade, there being but few intermediaries; to competition; and to the fact that, owing to there being no interruption to traffic at certain seasons by the periodical rains, the maintenance of large stocks necessitating the sinking of considerable sums is obviated. It should be noted that the dealer buys from the Government by weight, but sells retail by measure.

Consumption.

The average annual consumption of salt per head in the Madras Presidency may be estimated by taking the population according to the last census and calculating the amount consumed on the average annual sales of the five years from 1870-71 to 1874-75. Certain tracts, beyond the limits of the Presidency, partially supplied with salt from Madras depôts must be eliminated, and in the absence of any returns of traffic inland the calculations in this respect must be to a certain extent conjectural. If the exportation to adjoining countries is considered, a rate of 11·38 lb. is arrived at for the Madras Presidency with Mysore and Coorg; excluding a population of three millions in the Ceded Districts consuming no sea salt, the rate for the rest of the

Presidency with Mysore and Coorg is 12·28 lb. per head. If earth salt be taken into account, there are reasons to believe that this estimate of consumption is below the truth.

The following abstract shows the quantity of salt brought to store, sold and exported, with the Government price per Indian maund, for the last five years. Miscellaneous issues, such as for curing fish at special rates, and to the French settlements of Pondicherry, Yanam, Karical and Mahé, are not shown :— Statistics.

—	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.	1878-79.
Manufactured or imported ...	I. MDS. 5,903,097	I. MDS. 10,436,668	I. MDS. 7,752,666	I. MDS. 4,943,601	I. MDS. 7,236,381
Home consumption	3,493,154	3,239,144	3,078,625	2,896,758	2,705,683
Inland do.	3,025,620	3,236,139	3,101,322	3,042,637	2,570,130
Total ...	6,518,774	6,475,283	6,179,947	5,939,395	5,275,813
Exportation	702,482	772,091	294,840	183,120	138,900
Grand Total ...	7,221,256	7,247,374	6,474,787	6,122,515	5,414,713
Government price of Salt per Indian Maund.	RS. A. P. 2 4 0 2 3 0 2 0 0	RS. A. P. 2 5 0 2 4 0 2 3 0 2 2 0 2 0 0	RS. A. P. 2 5 0 2 4 0 2 3 0 2 2 0 2 0 0	RS. A. P. 2 5 0 2 4 0 2 3 0 2 2 0 2 0 0 2 11 0	RS. A. P. 2 11 0

The imports of salt on private account on payment of duty, and duty-free (the latter from Bombay where the local excise duty equal in amount to the import duty is paid by the exporters) in each of the last five years have been as follows. The rise in the last two years is due to the cessation since 1877 of imports on Government account into South Canara and Malabar :—

—	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.	1878-79.
Quantity imported on which duty was collected.	I. MDS. 22,032	I. MDS. 65,460	I. MDS. 120,997	I. MDS. 112,179	I. MDS. 199,137
Quantity imported duty-free ...	...	14,583	102,337	270,022	504,939
Total ...	22,032	80,043	123,334	382,201	704,076

The receipts at the commencement of each decade from 1806, when the monopoly was first introduced, have been as shown below. The receipts of the year 1878-79 were Rs. 1,46,33,735 :—

—	Revenue.	Monopoly price per maund.
	RS.	RS. A. P.
Fasli 1216 (A.D. 1806- 7)	19,94,439	0 9 4
,, 1226 (,, 1816-17)	25,21,199	0 14 0
,, 1236 (,, 1826-27)	28,30,585	0 9 4
,, 1246 (,, 1836-37)	36,42,403	0 14 0
,, 1256 (,, 1846-47)	46,74,928	1 0 0
,, 1266 (,, 1856-57)	52,67,498	1 0 0
,, 1276 (,, 1866-67)	1,15,75,229	1 11 0
,, 1280 (,, 1870-71)	1,26,05,009	2 0 0

STAMPS.

Nature of entries.

Sale-proceeds of stamps of the Stamp Department, stamp duties and penalties levied on unstamped or insufficiently stamped Deeds, together with any other sundry receipts which may be connected with the department, are credited to this head. Recoveries made for cost of suits *in formâ pauperis* are credited to Law and Justice. The charges include commission to licensed vendors, and all charges incidental to the department.

History of Stamps.

Stamps, by which is meant not only labels to be affixed to documents, but also blank sheets of paper with stamps impressed in the corner, were first introduced by the British Government. The native rulers did not use this form of revenue. The early stamp laws of this Presidency were contained in Regulations IV, V, VIII, and XVII of 1808; in Section 35 of Regulation VII of 1809; and in Regulation II of 1813; and under these duty was levied by means of stamped papers and stamped cadjan-leaves on the institution of suits, on exhibits, and on summonses issued to procure the attendance of witnesses. By Regulation XIII of 1816 the law was carried further, and it was enacted that all documents of certain descriptions, such as bonds, promissory notes, bills of exchange, &c., executed in the provinces should be stamped previous to execution. At the same time a fresh table of fees on the institution of suits and on appeals was substituted for the existing table; and various other steps in the progress of a suit were newly taxed, as the giving of an answer, rejoinder, razeenamah, petition, &c. Under this Regulation a General Stamp Office was established in Madras town with a Superintendent subordinate to the Board of Revenue. All stamped papers required under the Act were to be manufactured by him and counter-stamped at the Government General Treasury. In 1860, the Government of India Act No. XXXVI of 1860 appeared, in which the subject-matter of the stamp regulations for Bengal, Bombay and Madras Presidencies, together with several new provisions taken from the English Statutes, was reduced into one enactment applicable to the whole of India. This Act was the first which included the town of Madras, hitherto exempt; by Bengal Regulation XII of 1826 stamp duties were leviable within the town of Calcutta, but down to 1860 no similar law existed for the town of Madras or Bombay. Government of India Act X of 1862 was a mere reproduction with a few unimportant additions of Act XXXVI of 1860. In 1867 Act XXVI repealed Schedule B of the last Act, and the stamp duties on judicial proceedings were increased. The portion of the existing stamp law which related to the stamping of documents other than those for judicial proceedings was down to this date highly obscure, and in 1869 Act XVIII took charge

of this part of the subject and aimed at completely reconstructing that portion of the law. In 1870 Act VII revised the judicial part of the stamp law, diminishing the rates of 1867 in nearly all cases, and making various changes in detail. Under this Act the fees in the Original Side of the High Court, and in the Small Cause Court at the Presidency town were for the first time declared to be leviable by adhesive stamps in lieu of cash. This Act is still in force, Act XX of 1870 merely repairing some clerical errors which occurred in it. Act I of 1879 recently issued has modified Act XVIII of 1869 for general stamps. There was some talk on this occasion of consolidating the two branches of stamp law, but the public which uses each is so different that the idea was not carried out.

Acts in operation.

The Acts at present in operation are therefore I of 1879 called the Indian Stamp Act, for the stamping of documents other than those indicating steps in judicial proceedings; and VII of 1870, called the Court Fees Act, for stamping in the last-named cases. If a person desires to execute a document specified in Act I of 1879, he must in most cases purchase blank impressed stamp paper, and prepare the document thereon. In some cases he may send his document prepared but unexecuted to the Stamp Office to have stamped labels affixed there by the Superintendent of Stamps. In certain cases also specified in the Act, an adhesive stamp may be purchased and applied by the person himself to a document already prepared but not executed. Again the Act provides that in all cases other than that last named the Governor-General in Council may authorize the subsequent application in a speedy manner of an adhesive stamp by Government officials under what is called the "denoting" system to papers or unexecuted documents brought for that purpose by the public. Under Section 40 and of the Indian Stamp Act, or Act for general stamps, a person knowingly executing unstamped, and other persons knowingly dealing in certain specified ways with, a document which is liable to be stamped, can be prosecuted for evasion of the stamp laws. Such an unstamped document moreover is ineligible as evidence in Civil Courts, cannot be registered by the Registration Department, and cannot be authenticated by a public officer. Under Section 34 of the Indian Stamp Act, Civil Courts can receive unstamped or insufficiently stamped documents, on payment of the deficiency with a penalty, and will then endorse on the document that duty has been paid, and constitute it thenceforward valid. Every person having by law or consent of parties authority to receive evidence, and every person in charge of a public office except an officer of Police can impound documents for evasion of stamp duty, and bring the matter to the notice of the Collector. Collectors are the referees as to stamp duties, and may in certain cases remit penalties. The Board of Revenue may remit penalties in all

cases. Stamping after execution is permitted in certain cases to render the document valid, but the process will not absolve the person who executed the document. All stamps under the Court Fees Act are under Notification of the Government of India to be of the adhesive class; this is greatly to the convenience of the public. The law under this Act, as far as it touches the public, relates only to the amount payable on the documents which represent the different stages of the Court's proceedings. The Courts see that they are paid. The working of the stamp laws is being carefully watched, for there is no doubt that they are still too complicated.

Manufacture, supply, and sale.

Stamped papers used to be locally manufactured; water-marked paper was received from England on which the value stamps was impressed at the General Treasury, or on the abolition of the latter in 1861, at the Mint, or lastly on the closing of the Mint at the Paper Stamping Department attached to the Accountant-General's office; the counter-stamp of the Stamp Office was then affixed. The papers so prepared were issued to Collectors, but before they were offered for sale by vendors, the Collector's seal had to be affixed. The manufacture of stamped papers locally has been discontinued under the orders of the Government of India. Those now issued to districts for sale are chiefly stamps of English manufacture. The blue and black stamps of local manufacture, of which there is a large number of high value still remaining in store, continued to be used simultaneously until the stock is exhausted. The adhesive stamps used under the Indian Stamp Act are the ordinary one-anna receipt stamp, the foreign bill stamp, and the share transfer stamp. These and the adhesive stamps under the Court Fees Act are all of English make. The "denoting" process is carried out by the Superintendent by means of stamped labels of English make. The greater portion of the higher values of Court Fees and special adhesive stamps are under the joint lock and key of the Board of Revenue and the Superintendent of Stamps, but the rest of the stamps of all descriptions, besides Postage and Telegraph stamps, are in the custody of the Superintendent who controls the supply of labels and stamped papers to the provinces. The sales in the Town of Madras are effected by vendors under the control of the Collector of Madras, some of whom are remunerated by fixed salaries and others under the discount system. In the interior of the Presidency the Collectors are in charge of the stock of stamps, which they replenish by indents on the Superintendent of Stamps. Stamps of the value of 50 rupees and under are sold by a class of vendors who are remunerated by a percentage on their sales; stamps of greater value are sold by officers of Government only. Frauds are somewhat liable to occur in the use of adhesive stamps, which are easily removed from the documents to which they are applied. The

mode of fraud is usually to remove the stamp, and, if it is necessary to cover appearances, to substitute one of inferior value which will resemble it. Section 30 of the Court Fees Act requires that the stamp shall be effaced by punching before the Court can take cognizance of the document. In order to prevent fraud on the part of the ministerial servants who might connive at old punched stamps being introduced, arrangements are made for a second punching in diamond form before the documents are put into the record room; stamps so punched can hardly be re-introduced. Collectors, under Sections 53 and 54 of the Indian Stamp Act, have the power of refunding the value of spoiled and unused stamps or of issuing fresh stamps in lieu of them. Similar refunds under the Court Fees Act are governed by the Notification of the Government of Madras, dated 24th April 1872.

Postage Stamps and Telegraph Stamps.

Postage Stamps and Telegraph Stamps do not belong to the Stamp Department, but the Superintendent of Stamps is placed in charge of them for custody and distribution. Postage stamps are received direct from England by indents on the Secretary of State for India, and Telegraph Stamps from the Stamp Office in Calcutta. Local Depôts are supplied by the Superintendent of Stamps on the indents of the officers in charge. Every Treasury in the Presidency, including those attached to Mysore, Coorg, Hyderabad, and Travancore, is a local depôt for the sale of Postage and Telegraph Stamps of the value of not less than Rupees 5 of labels at one time. A discount of half an anna per rupee is allowed to licensed Stamp-vendors, Postmasters, Deputy Postmasters and others, not being persons employed in a Government treasury, who are required to retail Postage Stamps. To purchasers other than the above no discount is allowed. Discount is not allowed on sales of Telegraph Stamps. Half-anna and one-anna embossed postage envelopes are sold in packets containing sixteen envelopes, for the value of the stamps borne on them, portions of a packet not being saleable, under the same conditions as stamps with the privilege of discount. "Service Stamps" are sold to Government officials without restriction as to minimum amount. No discount is allowed on these sales. The bulk of the Postage and Telegraph Stamps at local depôts are under the joint lock and key of the Collector or his Treasury Deputy Collector and the Treasurer.

MINT.

Nature of entries.

The duty on coinage of Silver and the gain on Copper coinage, including other miscellaneous sources of revenue in this department, such as the sale-proceeds of Silver dross, old annealing tubes, acids, &c., in the corresponding have hitherto been entered under this head. The Madras Assay Department was however closed on 31st March

1876 under orders from the Government of India. The receipts consist now only of the sale of old stores and materials. The charges are cost of remitting copper, and loss on uncurrent coin withdrawn from circulation.

Law and Justice.

Nature of entries.

The receipts under this head include all Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures of the Judicial and Magisterial Departments, including those imposed by Judicial officers and officers of other departments acting magisterially under the Abkári and Stamp Acts, sale-proceeds of unclaimed and intestate property, and Court fees when realized in cash. The charges comprise the following:—High Court, including Sheriff of Madras; Law Officers; Administrator-General; Coroner's Court; Justices of the Peace; Civil and Sessions Courts; Courts of Small Causes; Criminal Courts (including the one-fifth charges referred to under Land Revenue); Special Assistants and Governor's Agents; and Cantonment Magistrates.

Interest.

Nature of entries.

Under this head are shown interest received on advances on arrears of revenue and on loans to public bodies, Native States, or private individuals. There is also a charge head bearing a corresponding name, with charge for interest on Service Funds, Savings' Bank Deposits, and certain local loans on which the Government has agreed to pay interest.

Superannuation, &c.

Nature of entries.

Under Receipts in aid of Superannuation are included subscriptions to the defunct Military and Medical Service funds, and contributions for pensions and gratuities made by officers lent for foreign service or employed by the Court of Wards, together with the capitalized value of pensions granted to Local Fund employés; these are the principal items. The charges under the head Superannuation consist simply of pensions and gratuities to Government servants in the several Departments.

Exchange.

Nature of entries.

The heads Gain by Exchange and Loss by Exchange are adjusting heads rendered necessary by the fact that the accounts of the Home Government are kept in the English, and those of the Indian Government in the Indian currency. The value of provincial stores, &c., is debited to the proper heads at the fixed rate of exchange, but the per contra credit afforded to the London account is at the rate of 2 shillings

per rupee, and the difference between this smaller sum and the debit to Provincial is credited to Gain by Exchange. On the other hand the amount of Secretary of State's bills drawn on India is debited to account with London at the rate of 2 shillings per rupee, the difference between the smaller sum thus obtained and the larger sum actually paid being charged to Loss by Exchange.

Refunds and Drawbacks.

Refunds represent repayment of revenue or receipts erroneously collected. The most important at present are Land Revenue and Stamp refunds, and refunds of Magisterial fines ordered by Appellate Courts. Drawbacks represent the portion of Customs Revenue due by law to the exporter or importer for re-exportation or re-importation. Nature of entries.

Administration.

This charge head embraces salaries and allowances of the Governor and Members of Council; the household establishment of the Governor; the tour expenses of the Governor; the establishment of the Board of Revenue; the Secretariat establishments of the Government excepting Public Works Department but including Translators' Offices; the establishment of the offices of Account and Audit, including Money Order Office; the charges connected with the Currency Department; and the payments made to the Bank of Madras for conducting Government Treasury and Savings' Bank business, and for the management of the public debt. Nature of entries.

Minor Departments.

This is a charge head, and comprises the charges of the smaller departments engaged in administration not specified in separate heads. For instance, Meteorology, Public Observatories, Examinations, Emigration, Chinchona and Tea plantations and nurseries, Census, Public Exhibitions and Fairs, Gazetteer, Donations to scientific societies, &c. All expenditure connected with the improvement and development of the resources of the country comes under this head. Nature of entries.

Medical.

The charge head Medical in the imperial section of the Public Accounts shows the salaries of Civil Surgeons of Districts. Nature of entries.

Allowances and Assignments.

This is the charge head for allowances and assignments under political treaties and public engagements. The sub-heads are Territorial and Political pensions, Inamdars, Pensions in lieu of resumed lands, Compensations, Charitable Allowances, and Miscellaneous. Nature of entries.

Public Debt and Remittances.

Nature of the arrangements.

Public debt is the generic term for accounts kept (1) of debt incurred by the Government temporarily or permanently, and of debt discharged by the Government; (2) of loans and advances made by the Government and of debts owing to Government; (3) of receipts and payments which are recovered under the provisions of the law and otherwise in the public accounts, but which are not payments due by Government or revenue; (4) of certain funds not incorporated in the public accounts, namely, Municipal, Port, Educational Building, Endowment, and Cantonment Funds; and (5) of remittance transactions between the various Governments and departments in India.

(1 *b*.) IMPERIAL SERVICES—PUBLIC WORKS.

Nature of finance and account system.

It has already been explained in Section IV that the Public Works Department executes works for Provincial and Local Funds as well as for Imperial Funds. A large proportion of the works are however for the latter, and it was for executing these Imperial works that the department was primarily designed. Moreover the Public Works Account Department is to a certain extent an Imperial Establishment, the superior officers of the department and all newly appointed members of the Accountant Establishment being available for service in any part of British India. An account will, therefore, here be given of Imperial Public Works Finance and Account, and it will be understood that, except in minor details, the procedure with respect to public works accounts under Provincial and Local Funds is the same.

Budgets.

Two separate budget estimates of Imperial Public Works receipts and charges are prepared annually; one for Irrigation Works, including the embankment and conservancy of rivers, the other for Military, Postal, and Telegraph Works. The irrigation budget is framed by the Chief Engineer for Irrigation in communication with the Superintending Engineers. The budget estimate for Imperial Works other than irrigation is prepared by the Chief Engineer, Buildings and Roads Branch, in communication with the Superintending Engineers and the heads of the Military, Postal, and Telegraph Departments. Both budgets, after approval by the local Government, are submitted about the beginning of January to the Government of India, by whom they are finally passed. In these budgets a specific assignment of funds is made

for each of the larger works to be undertaken or continued during the year, and special establishments are estimated for in detail; but the charges for general establishments for administrative and executive purposes are provided for by a percentage on the estimate for works, and repairs are provided for by lump sums placed at the disposal of the local officers of the department. Modifications of the budget are made from time to time during the currency of the year to which it relates. Increases and reductions of the total grants and important transfers can be made only by the Government of India; while transfers of minor importance are made by the local Government.

Disbursements.

Each budget, when sanctioned by the Government of India, is virtually a letter of credit in favor of the Public Works Department current during the year to which the budget relates. At the end of the year the credit lapses. On receipt of a budget, the local Accountant-General holds the aggregate amount of the grants at the disposal of the Public Works Department; and to the extent of the aggregate amount of all such grants (including those made in Provincial and Local Fund budgets) he issues letters of credit on the Government Treasuries in favor of the disbursing officers of the Public Works Department, on applications made from time to time through the Examiner of Accounts. The Accountant-General regulates only the total issue of letters of credit limiting the total issue to the aggregate of all Public Works grants; the Examiner regulates the issue in detail, limiting the credit of each disbursing officer to the aggregate of assignments made on account of charges to be incurred by him. All miscellaneous receipts realized by a Public Works Officer are at once paid into a Government Treasury to a separate account against which he is not allowed to draw. The expenditure of each officer is thus limited to the amount of letters of credit granted in his favor; and the aggregate expenditure of the department is therefore limited to the aggregate of all grants made by competent authority. The system of detailed appropriation prevents expenditure on account of any fund in excess of the grant made from that fund. The disbursing officers of the department are the officers in charge of executive divisions and their subordinates. The executive division is the recognized unit; and the officers in charge of these divisions, of which the number is thirty-eight, are the responsible disbursers. It is in their favor that letters of credit are granted on treasuries; and it is they who account to the Examiner for all receipts realized and expenditure incurred within their several divisions. They make such advances as may be necessary to their subordinates, and their subordinates account to them. They also make payments to officers of other departments to enable them to carry out such public works as may be entrusted to them.

Accounts.

As just stated, the subordinate Executive Agents in each division account to the officer in charge of the division for all expenditure incurred by them. Their accounts are of the simplest description, being chiefly copies of their cash-books. The classification of receipts and outlay and the compilation of the accounts of the Executive Engineer and his Subordinates into one set of Divisional Accounts is carried out at the head-quarters of the division; a responsible Accountant being attached for this purpose to each division. Every month the Executive Officer submits to the Examiner of Public Works Accounts a classified abstract of his receipts and expenditure supported by schedules giving such details as are necessary for statistical purposes. Officers of other departments, technically called Civil Officers, who are entrusted with the execution of public works, account every month directly to the Examiner for advances received and outlay incurred by them. The Examiner compiles the accounts received both from Civil Officers and from Public Works Officers, into one general account for the whole Presidency, and submits it to the Accountant-General, Public Works Department. This monthly account of the receipts and disbursements of the department, submitted to the Government of India, is classified under the following heads :—

Receipts.

IRRIGATION.
- Receipts on account of Capital Productive Works.
- Receipts on account of Ordinary Public Works.
- Receipts on account of Ordinary Productive Public Works.
- Receipts on account of Agricultural Works.

IMPERIAL (*other than Irrigation*).
- Military.
- Other Services.

Charges.

IRRIGATION.

Capital, Productive.
- Works.
- Establishment.
- Tools and Plant.
- Suspense.

Ordinary Capital.
- Works.
- Establishment.
- Tools and Plant.
- Profit and Loss.
- Suspense.
- State outlay on Guaranteed Irrigation Companies.

Ordinary Productive.
- Extensions and Improvements.
- Maintenance and Repairs.
- Establishment.
- Tools and Plant.
- Profit and Loss.

Agricultural.
- Works.
- Repairs.
- Establishment.
- Tools and Plant.
- Profit and Loss.
- Suspense.

IMPERIAL (*other than Irrigation.*)
- *Military.* } with the same sub-divisions as in the case of *Agricultural.*
- Other Services. } with the same sub-divisions as in the case of *Agricultural.*

To the Provincial Accountant-General the Examiner reports monthly the total receipts and expenditure on account of Imperial funds, distinguishing between Productive and Ordinary.

(1 *c.*) IMPERIAL SERVICES—POSTAL AND TELEGRAPH.

Nature of entries.

There is no local control over these items of Imperial Finance, and they are merely entered here for symmetry.

(1 *d.*) IMPERIAL SERVICES—MILITARY.

Nature of Military finance.

The pay of the Army, whether European or Native, and the pay and cost of military establishments for feeding, clothing, and otherwise providing for troops, are drawn from the ordinary Government treasuries. The sums which are entered as departmental receipts under Military are separately accounted for, and are not drawn against for these purposes. The estimates for military establishments and pay of the troops are made up into a Budget by the Controller of Military Accounts. When this budget is passed by the Government of India the Controller issues cash assignments of letters of credit, in accordance with its provisions. For British Troops the assignments are sent to the Regimental Paymasters, who take up their money requirements from the nearest Civil Treasury; for Batteries of Artillery, Native Regiments, and military establishments they are sent to the Presidency Paymaster who pays on submission of monthly vouchers. The Accountants-General in the several Provinces where the Madras Army serves are furnished with lists of the annual cash requirement estimates and issue their orders to the several Treasury Officers within their jurisdiction, who hold in readiness the funds necessary to meet the various demands. Detailed accounts of the military expenditure just described are rendered monthly by the Controller to the Accountant-General, Military Department, Calcutta.

(2 *a*.) PROVINCIAL SERVICES PROPER.

Nature of the services.

The general nature of Provincial Services has already been indicated in the first paragraph of this Section. They represent that division of the public revenues and charges which, for technical and purely financial purposes at any rate, are regarded as having an interest limited to the Presidency only. They are administered by the local Government subject only to the criticism and remarks of the Supreme Government.

History of the decentralization measure.

This head of account was first introduced in the year 1871. Under a resolution of the Government of India of the previous year it was decided to make over to each local Government a lump sum from the general revenues, to be administered by them and applied towards the expenses of certain defined departments; the receipts from these departments which had hitherto been credited to Imperial were to be credited in future to the new head of account; and the whole fund so constituted was to be styled the Provincial Fund. In thus decentralizing to a certain extent the fiscal authority, no new powers were given to local Governments as regards provincial taxation, for the power of taxing locally for purposes confined to the Presidency or Province had already been possessed and acted upon to a more or less considerable degree by the different administrations. Nor was there any appreciable elasticity in the resources thus placed under the control of the local Government, the assignment from Imperial resources being fixed, and the departmental receipts being, as compared with that assignment, insignificant. The operation of the measure was to fix the sum which would thenceforward be contributed by Imperial Funds towards the expenses of the departments specified, and to provide that any additional expenditure in that direction which might be rendered necessary by the growing wants of the country should be met by taxation imposed locally under the legislative powers of the local Governments. This arrangement though constituting an important administrative measure does not at present involve questions of any considerable financial magnitude, at any rate in comparison with similar arrangements in England, in consequence of the small margin which the taxable resources of this country leave to local taxation after the claims of Imperial taxation have been satisfied. The departments transferred under the arrangement just mentioned were (1) Jails, (2) Registration, (3) Police, (4) Education, (5) Medical Services excepting Medical Establishment, (6) Printing, (7) Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements, and (8) Civil Buildings. The sum assigned to this Presidency for the maintenance of these departments and to enable

the Government to meet its share of the cost of the proportion of the Public Works Establishment employed on the two classes of Public Works thenceforward to be treated as Provincial, as also to purchase tools and plant, was £739,488 per annum. The total grants for the same services had previously been £876,726; but £81,810, being the sum estimated for the then current year as departmental receipts, was deducted, and the balance only, or £794,916, regarded as the assignment necessary from imperial resources. At the same time, as a measure of relief to Imperial resources, a sum of £350,000 was deducted ratably from the assignments made to all the provinces; in the case of Madras the proportion amounted to £55,428, and this further deduction brought down the sum assigned to the amount above mentioned or £739,488. This was the original arrangement. Additions however have since been made by the Government of India for various minor services transferred from time to time from the Imperial to the Provincial heading, and further changes are in contemplation. The assignment on the 31st March 1879 stood at £807,506.

Present financial results.

The actual Provincial expenditure on the transferred services in 1875-76 was £822,910; there was also Local Fund expenditure on the same services, amounting to £603,255, so that the total amount spent on these services in 1875-76 was £1,426,165. The Imperial expenditure in 1870-71 on the same objects was £1,222,164; so that a sum of £204,001, being the difference between these two amounts, has been in the present year saved to the Imperial Exchequer and charged to local sources. The amount of local taxation under the Road Fund was in 1870-71 £238,014. The total amount of present local taxation is £376,964, showing an increase of £138,950 in local taxation since the inauguration of the decentralization scheme; it is probable, however, that a great portion of this increase would have taken place in any case.

Heads of receipts and charges.

The balance sheet for 1875-76 is given as showing the heads of receipts and charges, and the general proportion existing between the different items.

Receipts.

	Rs.		Rs.
Imperial Allotment	83,55,701	Miscellaneous Receipts—	
Departmental Receipts—		Fees and Fines	62,447
Jails	2,56,524	Sundry Receipts	51,753
Registration	3,80,530	Contributions	18,650
Police	37,680	Public Works	79,669
Education	28,698		
Medical	*31,351	Total ...	*93,54,864
Printing	26,723		
Marine	25,141		

* Excluding the recoveries from Local Funds and Municipal Boards, Rupees 30,862.

Expenditure.

	Rs.		Rs.
Refunds	4,601	Minor Establishments	2,30,331
Jails	10,57,532	Office-rent, Rates and Taxes ...	85,032
Registration	2,66,563	Miscellaneous	2,31,848
Police	35,79,908	Contributions	12,22,062
Education	8,75,308	Public Works	11,03,689
Medical	*5,56,567		
Printing	2,46,357	Total ...	*94,60,298
Marine	...		

(2 *b*.) UNFETTERED LOCAL FUNDS.

Cattle Pound Fund.

The Cattle Pound Fund was originally inaugurated under the Imperial Act III of 1857, which was repealed by Act I of 1871. The income of the fund is made up of fines paid on stray cattle and sale-proceeds of unclaimed cattle. It is expended in the remuneration of pound-keepers and in the construction and repair of pounds, and the net surplus remaining is applied to the construction and repair of roads and bridges and to other purposes of public utility in the following manner. A half of the surplus is paid to Local and Municipal funds for these purposes, and the other half is appropriated to the Government Farms at Saidapet for Agricultural education, &c. In 1871-72 4,594 pounds were maintained, which increased to 5,616 in 1877-78. The pounds are very unequally distributed over the districts, as a condition of the establishment or retention of a pound is that it shall be self-supporting. As regards establishment, the head of the village is by law the ex-officio pound-keeper. In 1875-76 Government fixed the remuneration of pound-keepers, as to which great diversity of practice prevailed, at a uniform rate of 50 per cent. on collections for all districts except the Nilgiris. In 1874 Government allowed the employment of a pound gumastah on 10 rupees a month in such of the taluks of each district in which one may be considered necessary, and these are now being gradually entertained.

(3.) FETTERED LOCAL FUNDS.

Funds under Act IV of 1871.

A description of the nature of the local funds under Act IV of 1871 and of the Boards which administer them has been given already under Section III. A general supervision only is exercised by the

* Excluding the recoveries from Local Funds and Municipal Boards, Rupees 30,862.

Local Government, and the funds may be described as funds raised locally, administered locally, and administered for strictly local purposes. The following balance sheet for 1875-76 will show the ordinary heads of receipts and charges. It is not necessary to explain each item :—

Receipts.

	Rs.	Rs.
Allotments from Provincial Services	12,33,984	
Special Funds	3,57,919	
		15,91,903
Rates and Taxes—		
Cess on Lands	36,03,247	
Tax on Houses	1,235	
Tolls on Roads, &c. ...	1,65,163	
		37,69,645
Fees in Schools and Training Institutions	...	22,376
Contributions from other Local Fund Circles and Municipalities	...	29,530
Receipts of Schools and Endowed Foundations—		
Educational	10,634	
Hospitals and Dispensaries	22,703	
Choultries, Markets, &c.	2,64,798	
Miscellaneous	4,614	
		3,02,749
Miscellaneous—		
Miscellaneous Fees, Fines, Rents, Sales, and Contributions	85,160	
Public Works Receipts and Refunds	1,46,960	
		2,32,120
Advances, &c.		1,19,100
Loans		82,237
Total ...		61,49,660

Charges.

	Rs.	Rs.
Public Works—		
Communications ...	35,11,913	
Tolls and Ferries ...	2,795	
Educational	18,728	
Sanitary and Miscellaneous	2,67,434	
	38,00,870	
Establishment	8,41,621	
Tools and Plant	37,112	
Refunds of Receipts, &c..	24	
Contributions	42,413	
		47,22,040
Education—		
Inspection	50,241	
Local Fund Schools ...	1,89,990	
Grants-in-aid	1,80,714	
Contributions	1,644	
		4,22,589
Sanitation, Medical Services, and Public and Charitable Institutions—		
Hospitals and Dispensaries and Medical Practitioners	1,41,802	
Vaccine Establishments...	78,952	
Sanitary Establishments and Cleansing Tanks and Wells	2,87,298	
Markets, Choultries, &c.	2,09,632	
Contributions, &c. ...	80,969	
		7,98,653
Miscellaneous Establishment and Contingencies..		89,273
Advances		1,12,547
Loans		17,686
Total ...		61,62,788

Jungle Conservancy Fund.

The Jungle Conservancy Fund was organized in 1859 for the avowed object of conserving and extending village jungles, which were being rapidly destroyed by the villagers and others in the exercise of ancient prescriptive rights. In order to preserve and improve them, a local tax on firewood cut and charcoal made for sale is levied through the village officers and applied to the formation of plantations and avenues, raising nurseries, &c., it being understood that the prescriptive rights of the ryots to fuel, leaves for manure, and

wood for implements intended for their own use and not for sale shall be left undisturbed. The operations of the fund in the several districts commenced in different years ranging from 1860-61 to 1866-67. In 1868-69 the fund was in existence in all but the Madras, Nilgiris, and Malabar Districts. In 1869-70 it was established in the Nilgiris by the transfer of the jungles which were under the conservancy of the Forest Department to the charge of the Commissioner. The jungles were, however, retransferred to the Forest Department from 1875-76. At first the income of the fund was small and the operations necessarily limited. In 1868-69 it was considered that the operations of the fund had become sufficiently extensive to require the preparation of a detailed programme of the work to be done in each year, which was accordingly ordered and carried out from 1869-70, by which system uniformity in the operations has been secured. From 1871-72 the cost of roadside avenues was thrown upon Local Funds and the Jungle Conservancy Fund relieved of the charge. The general rate of seigniorage now in force on fuel is 6 annas per 1,000 lbs. The rates for charcoal are 1½ rupees per 1,000 lb. in the districts traversed by the Railway, and 1 rupee only in other districts, except in Ganjam, where a special rate of 10 annas has been sanctioned to be in force subject to future revision. In Ganjam and Malabar no seigniorage is levied on charcoal. Besides the tax on fuel and charcoal, the rents of jungles, sale of trees, and sale-proceeds of wood contribute towards the receipts.

Village Service Fund.

The assets of the Village Service Fund are derived chiefly from the cess collected with the Land Revenue under Madras Act IV of 1864 in the districts where the Act has been introduced, from the deductions made from the Land Revenue in some districts on account of village service and which the Government are pledged to continue for various reasons, and from the sums charged for the enfranchisement of Village Service Inams. In districts where the Act has not been introduced, the old meeras or fees paid by the people as remuneration to the village officers are collected and credited to the Fund. The object of the Fund is to improve the pay of the village servants, and to increase and alter their number so as to meet properly the requirements of the different villages. Act IV of 1864, which is introduced concurrently with the new settlement in each district, is as yet in operation only in Godavari, Kistna, Kurnool, Trichinopoly, Salem, and Tinnevelly. The rates of cess levied are shown in the margin, and as the cess was collected before the reorganization of the village establishments, there are large surpluses in the districts. A portion of the surplus has been invested in Government securities, but the rate of cess in Kurnool has

Godavari ...	... 8 pies.
Kistna ...	... 11 „
Kurnool ...	... 10 „
Trichinopoly	... 1 anna.
Salem ...	... 1 „
Tinnevelly	... 1 „

been reduced from 1 anna to 10 pies in the rupee, subject to report after trial of the whole reorganization of the village establishments recently carried out.

Irrigation Cess Fund.

The irrigation cess is paid voluntarily by ryots holding lands under certain river channels in lieu of customary labor formerly supplied by them. It exists in Trichinopoly, Salem, and Coimbatore. It has gradually died out in Madura owing to the want of any law to enforce the payment.

Cochrane's and Sadras Canal Fund.

The Cochrane's and Sadras and Buckingham Canal Fund derives its income from tolls and license fees on boats using Cochrane's Canal to the north of Madras and the Sadras Canal to the south. The canals were originally Imperial but were made local by the Government of India on an application to that effect from the Government of Madras in 1864. The income is expended on the maintenance of the canals and in payment of the establishment for collecting tolls. The Northern Canal has been extended to the Commamur Canal in the Kistna District and a Junction Canal has been formed connecting the Northern and Southern Canals.

Canal and Ferry Fund.

The Canal and Ferry Fund is raised under Madras Act I of 1870, and is made up of tolls and license fees on canals, lines of navigation, and ferries. The money is expended on the construction, improvement, repair, maintenance, and extension of the channels and ferries to which the provisions of the Act may be applied. As yet the Act is in operation only as regards certain ferries in the Godavari, Kistna, and Tanjore Districts, and the Salt Canal from Negapatam to Vedarniem, to which it was extended in 1874-75.

Public Bungalow Fund.

Almost all the travellers' bungalows in the Presidency have been transferred to Local and Municipal Boards, District Officers, and other departments of the service and the Public Bungalow Fund will therefore shortly become extinct under Special Funds.

Convict Labor Fund.

The receipts of the Convict Labor Fund consist of 95 per cent. of the nett profits of convict labor after deducting charges on account of manufactures. The expenditure is incurred on construction and repair of jails.

Police Lodging Fund.

The Police Lodging Fund is formed by deductions from the pay of the Police on account of their lines, and is spent in their construction and repair.

Bearers' Fee Fund.

The Bearers' Fee Fund is formed chiefly by a cess on the land revenue in the Godavari district, and is devoted in that district to the payment of Postal dâk.

District Road Fund of Bhadrachalam and Rekapally.

The District Road Fund of Bhadrachalam and Rekapally taluks is formed by a cess of 2 per cent. levied on the land revenue, and is expended in making roads.

(4.) EXCLUDED LOCAL FUNDS.

Municipal Funds. Municipalities merely bank with the Accountant-General, and he has no account of their receipts and charges. Municipal Administration is treated of under Section IX of this volume.

Port Fund. The Port Fund consists of dues and fees levied under Act XII of 1875, and from it a portion of the Port establishments and other charges are defrayed.

Educational Building Fund. The Educational Building Fund was formed from the surplus which accrued from the Pagoda Funds when under Government management, and from the unspent portion of the annual assignments of Rupees 50,000 by the late Honorable Court of Directors for native education. These were invested and are expended in the erection of public and private educational buildings, in the latter case in the shape of grants-in-aid.

Endowment Fund. This fund comprises the endowment of choultries, alms-houses, and other public foundations not being religious. Most of the endowed institutions under the control of the Collectors have been transferred to Local and Municipal Boards, and their receipts and charges are exhibited in the Local Fund and Municipal accounts. The institutions now maintained from this fund are few in number, viz., the Munro chuttrum and dispensary in Bellary, the Lungerkhana in Kurnool, one chuttrum in Tinnevelly, and another in Nilgiris. The receipts of these institutions are composed, for the most part, of fixed allowances granted by Government.

Cantonment Fund. The Cantonment Fund is formed under Section 19 of Madras Act I of 1866, and its revenue is derived from funds levied under Section 17 of the Act, from pound collections and sale of grass and other produce reared within the cantonments. The fund is expended on sanitary establishments and works of public utility within each cantonment.

(5.) LOANS.

Nature of the arrangements. Corporate bodies having a control of public funds are empowered under Act XXIV of 1871 to obtain money on loan from the local Governments on the security of those funds; and under the same Act they are precluded from raising money from any persons other than the local Government except with the consent of the latter. The objects for which such loans may be raised are the construction and

repair of works of public utility, or the repayment of debts contracted before the passing of the Act for the same purposes; and it has been ruled that the works must be of a reproductive character, in all cases except where the borrowers are Municipal bodies, in which case a greater latitude is allowed. Loans bear interest at 4½ per cent., and are repayable ordinarily by half-yearly instalments within 20 years If any of the loan conditions are infringed, the funds of the corporation are liable to attachment by Government. Loans are in special cases given by the Government of India to native states, zemindari estates, &c., on terms specified when each loan is sanctioned. The funds necessary for the issue of all these loans are obtained by setting aside at the commencement of each year a certain lump sum from Imperial Services, this sum being fixed on in communication with the Government of India. The loans are given throughout the year out of this lump sum, and are made at the discretion of the local Government except in certain special cases.

(6.) ADVANCES UNDER LAND IMPROVEMENT ACT.

Nature of the transactions.

Two lakhs of rupees are annually entered in the Budget estimate of this Presidency to meet advances for agricultural improvements under Act XXVI of 1871. This sum is distributed between the districts by the Board of Revenue, and from the sums so allotted Collectors make advances to the ryots under the rules published at page 1065 of the Fort St. George Gazette of 17th June 1873. These advances bear interest at the yearly rate of one anna per rupee.

SUB-SECTION III.—PAPER CURRENCY DEPARTMENT.

Nature of arrangements.

The Presidency is divided into three Circles of Paper Currency Issue; Madras, Calicut, and Cocanada. The Madras Circle of Issue includes the districts of Nellore, Chingleput, North Arcot, South Arcot, Salem, Cuddaph, Bellary, Kurnool, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Tinnevelly, and Bangalore, with the town of Madras as head-quarters for the issue of notes for the circle; the Calicut Circle includes the districts of Malabar, South Canara, Coimbatore, the Nilgiris and Coorg, having Calicut as the office of issue; and the Cocanada circle embraces the remaining districts, viz., Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godavari, and Kistna, with head-quarters at Cocanada. In addition to the three

head-quarters of issue, a currency agency is established at Vizagapatam to afford facilities to the public for exchanging coin for notes or notes or coin. The Exchange Department at the head-quarters of each circle of issue issues Home notes for coin or other notes, and coin for notes. Other or foreign circle notes are only cashed when there is an available margin for cashing foreign circle notes, which margin is calculated, by deducting from the reserve of silver coin in the vaults the difference between the amount of notes actually in circulation at the time, and that known to be the average circulation. At the Head Office at Madras, notes of its sub-circles, Calicut and Cocanada (including its agency at Vizagapatam), are at all times cashed by law. The Exchange Department also issues small silver and copper coin in exchange for coin or notes. District Treasuries are supplied with notes by the Accountant-General, through the Treasuries at the head-quarters of each circle of issue, on the receipt of indents from the district treasuries, provided the Accountant-General considers it advisable to do so, which point is chiefly determined by whether the district has or has not at the time a larger cash balance than its standard one as fixed by the Accountant-General. Although no person has a legal claim to obtain cash for notes except at the currency office of issue, or in the case of Calicut and Cocanada notes at Madras, notes are cashed freely at Mofussil Treasuries when the Treasury officers are satisfied that no inconvenience can be caused to their treasuries by the encashment that it will not render necessary the remittance of specie at the public expense. Notes tendered by travellers, (other than visitors to hill sanitaria) are cashed to a limited extent, even when the treasury is unable to cash them to the general public. At every place other than the office of issue notes of the Home circle are a legal tender in satisfaction of any claim against Government, though ordinarily no person is pressed to take notes in part or full of his demand. Payment of Government dues may be made in Government currency notes of any circle of issue. Railway Companies are also required to receive notes of any circle in payment of fares and freight, and the officer in charge of a Treasury into which such company pays its earning is authorized to receive notes so paid.

SUB-SECTION IV.—MONEY ORDER DEPARTMENT.

Nature of money order system.

The receipt and payment of money orders is attended to by a paid Agent at the head office at the Presidency and by the Treasury Officers in the Districts. The amount of an order cannot exceed Rupees 150, nor is the amount grantable on one day to the same

person ordinarily permitted to exceed 500 rupees. Orders not presented for payment within one year from date of issue are not payable without satisfactory explanation of delay afforded to the Comptroller-General. Orders are granted on Europe also under similar rules, but they have to pass through the Accountant-General, Bombay. The rate of exchange is determined by the Comptroller-General from time to time and telegraphed to the Madras Accountant-General.

SECTION VI.

VITAL STATISTICS AND MEDICAL SERVICES.

RESULTS OF LATEST CENSUSES.

Area, &c., of the Presidency.

It has already been mentioned that the Presidency includes an area of 139,698 square miles; that it is divided into 21 districts, besides the Native principality of Puducottah, the latter contributing 1,380 square miles of the total area given above; and that the districts are divided into 156 taluks, sub-divided into 56,421 villages.

History of early Censuses.

The first census of the Madras Presidency was taken in 1822, when the population was returned at 13,476,923. The next enumeration, within the same territorial limits, was in the year 1836-37, when the numbers were returned at 13,967,395, or an increase of only 490,472 in fourteen years, a result doubtless chiefly due to defective census returns, but also attributable in some measure to the epidemic cholera prevailing from 1818 to 1826 or 1827, and to the later epidemic, preceded by famine, which raged in 1833 and 1834. The first of the quinquennial enumerations was taken in 1851-52, when the population was found to have risen to 22,031,697, of which 273,190 belonged to the district of Kurnool which had been annexed after the previous census was taken. An increase of 58 per cent. in fifteen years shows very clearly that one or other of the censuses was extremely inaccurate, and it is now believed that many of the zemindaries were omitted, or their population much understated in the returns for 1836-37. The results of the four quinquennial enumerations are shown below:—

Years.	Population.
1851-52	22,031,697
1856-57	22,857,855
1861-62	24,656,509
1866-67	26,539,052

The figures for 1861-62 and 1866-67 are exclusive of North Canara, which was transferred to Bombay in 1862, with a population at that time of somewhere about 300,000.

Operations of Census of 1871.

The census of 1871 was taken in accordance with the desire of the Supreme Government for a general census of the whole of India. Experience having shown that the circumstances of the country were such as to render it dangerous to rely on a census taken on a single day, a preliminary house-to-house enumeration was resolved on, and full instructions were issued by the Board of Revenue in September 1872 to all Collectors, who, as usual, were made responsible for the conduct of the operations within their respective districts. In the beginning of January 1871 the preliminary work commenced by the accountants of each village preparing and transmitting to the Tahsildars of the taluk a series of statistical returns and registers of the houses, area, and assessment of their villages, in order to prepare which the accountants had to proceed from house-to-house and affix a number to each in such a manner as to last till the 15th of November, the day fixed for the final enumeration. As a rule, these returns reached the taluk offices in time to permit of returns for each taluk being compiled and forwarded to the Collectors of the districts by the 15th February, after which the house registers were returned to the village accountants for use during the preliminary enumeration, which commenced on the 15th July, except in South Canara and Malabar, where it commenced earlier so as to permit of the work being completed before the outbreak of the south-west monsoon. Before the end of July, the inmates of every house were registered and the returns despatched to the local Supervisor, usually the Revenue Inspector of the range, who tested 10 per cent. of the entries and sent back for amendment such returns as he found incorrectly prepared, the work of the Supervisors being again tested by Tahsildars and Divisional Officers. In municipalities and cantonments the census was conducted under the supervision of the Municipal Commissioners and Military authorities acting in concert with the Collector of the district, and in such cases the preliminary enumeration was usually delayed until September or October. The final enumeration took place on the 15th of November 1871 in all the villages and towns of the Presidency, except in the district of Tanjore and the town of Palghaut, where it was thought expedient to defer it for a few days on account of the occurrence of festivals and the presence of numerous strangers. The returns prepared on the 15th were sent to the Supervisors to be tested and then transferred to the Tahsildars, who forwarded them after careful examination to the Collectors, by whom they were transmitted to the Census Office at Madras for final scrutiny and tabulation. The enumerators employed in taking the census were for the most part village officials who received no extra remuneration, but in the larger villages and towns it was necessary to employ paid enumerators in addition. Zemindars usually exerted themselves to assist in obtaining correct results on their own estates, and

much assistance was gratuitously afforded in many ways by Native gentlemen throughout the Presidency. The number of enumerators employed was 71,641, being about 1 to every 436 of the population. The total charge incurred on this account amounted to Rupees 33,341, or Rupees 1-1-0 per thousand of the population. Naturally the people were somewhat suspicious of the subject of the census, but there was little or no active opposition, and any defects in the returns are attributable more to the incapacity or caste prejudices of the enumerators than to anything else. Careful enumerators found little difficulty, as a rule, in overcoming the reticence usually found in supplying information regarding the female population, and in the case of the census of Mahomedan females the difficulty was much less than had been anticipated.

Gross results of Census of 1871.

The result of the final examination and tabulation of the returns was to fix the population of the Presidency at 31,597,872, being a gross increase of 5,058,820 over the figures for 1866-67, and a net increase of 4,274,452 after deducting the population in localities not included in the previous census. It has been already stated that previous censuses erred, if anything, in the direction of understating rather than of exaggerating the population. In considering the apparent increase this must be borne in mind. Particulars regarding the distribution of the population are given in the annexed table:—

Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	No. of Taluks.	No. of Villages.*	No. of Houses.	Population.	Average No. of Houses to a Square Mile.	Average No. of Houses to a Village.	Average No. of Persons to a Square Mile.	Average No. of Persons to a House.	Average No. of Persons to a Village.	Average No. of Persons to a Taluk.
Ganjam	8,313	3	4,562	341,404	1,520,088	41·1	74·8	182·9	4·45	333·2	506,696
Vizagapatam	18,344	2	8,581	489,419	2,159,199	26·7	57·0	117·7	4·41	251·6	1,079,599
Godavari	6,224	9	2,202	389,712	1,592,939	62·6	177·0	255·9	4·08	723·4	176,993
Kistna	8,036	11	2,140	282,858	1,452,374	35·1	131·9	180·7	5·14	678·7	132,039
Nellore	8,462	9	2,417	263,820	1,376,811	31·1	109·2	162·7	5·21	569·6	152,970
Cuddapah	8,367	11	1,337	339,063	1,351,194	40·5	253·6	161·5	3·98	1010·6	122,836
Bellary	11,007	15	2,540	351,943	1,668,006	32·0	138·6	151·5	4·73	656·7	111,200
Kurnool	7,358	8	787	205,884	959,640	28·0	261·6	130·4	4·66	1219·4	119,955
Chingleput	2,753	6	2,362	141,434	938,184	51·4	59·9	340·7	6·63	397·2	156,364
North Arcot	7,139	9	5,292	329,844	2,015,278	46·2	62·3	282·3	6·11	380·8	223,920
South Arcot	4,873	8	3,198	228,761	1,755,817	46·9	71·6	360·3	7·67	549·0	219,477
Tanjore	3,654	9	3,935	369,984	1,973,731	101·3	94·0	540·1	5·33	501·6	219,303
Trichinopoly	3,515	5	1,644	210,690	1,200,408	59·9	128·2	341·5	5·69	730·1	240,081
Madura	9,502	6	5,459	443,513	2,266,615	46·7	81·2	238·5	5·11	415·2	377,769
Tinnevelly	5,176	9	1,824	403,803	1,693,959	78·0	221·4	327·3	4·19	928·7	188,217
Coimbatore	7,432	10	1,575	361,109	1,763,274	48·6	229·3	237·3	4·88	1119·5	176,327
Nilgiris	749	1	17	13,922	49,501	18·6	818·9	66·0	3·55	2911·8	49,501
Salem	7,483	9	4,021	391,519	1,966,995	52·3	97·4	262·9	5·02	489·2	218,555
South Canara	3,902	5	1,288	184,569	918,362	47·3	143·3	235·4	4·97	713·0	183,672
Malabar	6,002	10	432	435,462	2,261,250	72·6	1008·0	376·7	5·19	5234·4	226,125
Madras City	27	1	23	51,741	397,552	1916·3	2249·6	14724·1	7·68	19284·8	397,552
Total ...	138,318	156	55,636	6,229,954	31,281,177	45·0	111·9	226·2	5·02	562·2	200,520
Puducottah Territory ...	1,380	3	1,279	77,638	316,695	56·2	60·7	229·5	4·07	247·6	105,565
Grand Total ...	139,698	159	56,915	6,307,592	31,597,872	45·2	110·8	226·2	5·01	555·2	198,729

* The number of villages entered includes those of zemindaries also.

Of the whole population 28,863,978 were Hindus, 1,857,857 Mahomedans, 490,299 Native Christians, 14,505 Europeans, 26,374 East Indians or Eurasians, 21,254 Jains, 6,910 individuals whose nationality was undistinguished in the returns. Of these 23,714,578 resided in Government villages or Inam lands, 7,566,599 on permanently-settled estates (zemindaries, &c.), and 316,695 in the State of Puducottah. The following table shows the distribution of the people according to nationality :— Nationalities.

Districts.	Hindus.	Mahomedans.	Native Christians.	Europeans.	Eurasians.	Buddhists or Jains.	Others.	Total.
1. Ganjam ...	1,513,673	4,826	679	149	205	45	511	1,520,088
2. Vizagapatam* ...	2,135,432	21,030	882	378	810	91	576	2,159,199
3. Godavari ...	1,555,981	35,173	585	451	385	39	325	1,592,939
4. Kistna	1,365,709	78,941	7,380	77	208	...	59	1,452,374
5. Nellore	1,308,014	65,670	2,653	101	237	...	136	1,376,811
6. Cuddapah ...	1,242,317	103,676	4,608	93	109	4	387	1,351,194
7. Bellary... ...	1,534,223	127,783	3,354	1,213	978	327	128	1,668,006
8. Kurnool ...	847,805	107,920	3,644	40	160	2	69	959,640
9. Chingleput ...	899,686	23,191	11,480	2,090	1,571	147	18	938,184
10. North Arcot ...	1,913,020	86,741	6,316	336	666	7,889	310	2,015,278
11. South Arcot ...	1,676,462	44,567	30,219	123	370	3,861	215	1,755,817
12. Tanjore ...	1,803,787	102,703	65,262	389	522	239	329	1,973,731
13. Trichinopoly ...	1,115,778	82,024	50,822	623	630	143	390	1,200,408
14. Madura ...	2,062,768	132,833	70,445	175	166	13	250	2,266,615
15. Tinnevelly ...	1,506,621	84,753	102,249	197	130	...	9	1,693,959
16. Coimbatore ...	1,715,081	36,026	11,443	153	442	56	73	1,763,274
17. Nilgiris ...	42,451	1,936	2,935	1,339	796	...	44	49,501
18. Salem ...	1,901,060	52,312	12,684	256	377	28	278	1,966,995
19. South Canara ...	777,587	83,178	48,938	130	190	8,339	...	918,362
20. Malabar ...	1,637,914	581,609	32,280	2,579	5,409	31	1,428	2,261,250
21. Madras ...	308,611	50,964	21,441	3,613	12,013	...	910	397,552
Total ...	28,863,979	1,857,857	490,299	14,505	26,374	21,254	6,910	81,281,177
Puducottah Territory	296,829	8,506	11,328	8	24	...	...	816,695
Grand Total ...	29,160,807	18,66,363	501,627	14,513	26,398	21,254	6,910	31,597,872

The Hindus formed about 92·3 per cent. of the whole population, inclusive of all aboriginal and mountain tribes, whether having caste distinctions or not. The bulk of these are manifestly not of Aryan extraction, but in South India it is impossible to distinguish the Hindu population in this way with any approximation to accuracy. The proportion of Hindus to the total varied from 99 per cent. in Ganjam to 72 per cent. in Malabar. —Hindus.

The great bulk of the Mahomedan population of the Madras Presidency is of mixed descent, due partly to intermarriages either of the conquering races from the north or of Arab and Persian traders to the Western Coast, partly to forcible conversions in the time of Tippoo, and perhaps still more than either to voluntary conversions from Hinduism, especially on the Western Coast, where the percentage of Mahomedans to the whole population at the time of the census was as —Mahomedans.

* In the total number of males and females the population of Jeypore (males 168,909 + females 145,579 = total 314,488) is included, but not in the particulars, viz., "children" and "adults."

high as 25·7 per cent. In Madras, formerly the head-quarters of the Nabob of the Carnatic, the proportion was 12·8 per cent., while in Vizagapatam and Ganjam it was as low as 0·9 and 0·3 per cent.

—Native Christians. Inclusive of Roman Catholics, Syrian Christians, and Protestants, the total Native Christian population of the Presidency amounted to upwards of half a million. The highest percentage, 6·0, was found in Tinnevelly, chiefly owing to the Protestant Missions of later years, while the results of the labors of the earlier Christians and of the Jesuit Missions of the seventeenth century are found most markedly in the districts of South Canara and Malabar on the West Coast, and of Madura, Trichinopoly, and Tanjore in the centre of the peninsula, with a percentage varying from 1·4 to 5·3.

—Europeans. The more important stations occupied by the Madras Army were not embraced by the census, being situated beyond the civil limits of the Presidency; but the presence of the European troops at the smaller stations contributed in no small measure to bring up the number of the European population to 14,505.

—Eurasians. The Eurasian or East Indian population amounted to only 26,374, of which 13,584 were in Madras or the neighboring district of Chingleput, and 5,409 in Malabar, where the Portuguese and Dutch had formerly established extensive settlements.

—Jains and Buddhists. The Jains and Buddhists were classed together, but probably only a very few, if any, returned themselves under the latter heading. The total amounted to 21,254, of which 11,750 were in the districts of North and South Arcot, and 8,339 in South Canara. The following table shows the numbers of the above classes in each 100,000 of the population of the various districts :—

Districts.	Hindus.	Mahomedans.	Europeans.	Eurasians.	Native Christians.	Jains.	Others.	Total.
1. Ganjam	99,578	317	10	13	45	3	34	100,000
2. Vizagapatam ..	98,899	974	17	38	41	4	27	100,000
3. Godavari	97,679	2,208	29	24	37	3	20	100,000
4. Kistna	94,033	5,435	5	15	508	...	4	100,000
5. Nellore	95,003	4,770	7	17	193	...	10	100,000
6. Cuddapah	91,942	7,673	7	8	341	1	28	100,000
7. Bellary	91,978	7,661	73	59	201	20	8	100,000
8. Kurnool	88,346	11,246	4	17	379	1	7	100,000
9. Chingleput	95,897	2,472	223	167	1,223	16	2	100,000
10. North Arcot ..	94,926	4,304	17	33	613	392	15	100,000
11. South Arcot ...	95,480	2,538	7	21	1,722	220	12	100,000
12. Tanjore	91,386	5,206	20	27	3,307	12	42	100,000
13. Trichinopoly ...	92,950	2,668	52	52	4,234	12	32	100,000
14. Madura	91,007	5,860	8	7	3,108	1	9	100,000
15. Tinnevelly	88,941	5,003	4	8	6,036	...	1	100,000
16. Coimbatore	97,267	2,043	9	25	649	3	4	100,000
17. Nilgiris	85,758	3,911	2,705	1,608	5,929	...	89	100,000
18. Salem	96,648	2,660	13	19	645	1	14	100,000
19. South Canara ...	84,671	9,057	14	21	5,329	908	...	100,000
20. Malabar	72,454	25,721	114	239	1,428	1	63	100,000
21. Madras	77,628	12,819	909	3,022	5,393	...	229	100,000
Total ...	92,273	5,939	46	84	1,568	68	22	100,000
Puducottah Territory ...	93,727	2,686	2	8	3,577	...	...	100,000
Grand Total ...	92,287	5,907	46	84	1,587	67	22	100,000

Density of population.

As might naturally be expected the density of the population was greatest on the sea-board and in the more highly irrigated districts, such as Tanjore and Trichinopoly, and most sparse in the hill ranges and the forest tracts adjoining the Eastern and Western Ghauts. The average number of persons to a square mile throughout the Presidency was 226·2, the maximum per district being 540·1 in Tanjore, and the minimum 66 on the Nilgiri Hills. Excluding the Nilgiri the thinnest population of all the districts was found in Kurnool, Cuddapah, and Bellary. The highest town population was 98,732 per square mile in the 2nd division of the town of Madras. The following statement compares the density of population of Madras Presidency with that of other countries :—

	Population per Square Mile.		Population per Square Mile.
Oude in India	468	Ireland	169
Belgium	447	Bavaria	167
England	422	Austro-Hungary	158
Bengal	397	France	150
England and Wales	390	Bombay in India	131
North-West Provinces in India	378	Berar in do.	129
Saxony	377	Ajmere in do.	119
Netherlands	391	Denmark	111
Great Britain and Ireland	265	Scotland	109
Italy	237	Portugal	108
Madras	226	Assam	99
German Empire	193	Spain	90
Mysore in India	187	Coorg	84
Prussia	180	Greece	73
Switzerland	175	British Burmah	31
Punjab in India	173		

Houses.

The house-accommodation for the population was as below noted, showing an average of five persons to a house. On the night of the census 371,960, or 6 per cent. were returned without inhabitants, being either shops or simply empty houses. The average number of persons to a terraced house was 5, to a tiled house 6, to a thatched house 4·9, and to a house undefined 5·1. Taking the Presidency as a whole, the terraced house is probably a superior class of building, but this is not necessarily the case in some districts, such as Bellary, Kurnool, and Cuddapah where the prevalent high winds render it a more suitable style for general adoption, while on the other hand the heavy rainfall on the Western Coast leads to its almost complete absence in the districts of Malabar and South Canara.

Terraced	492,279
Tiled	447,420
Thatched	5,180,146
Unspecified	110,109
	6,229,954

Proportions of the sexes.

Allusion has been made above to the difficulty in obtaining correct returns of the female population having been got over more successfully than had been anticipated, but internal evidence shows that it still, in some measure, affected the reliability of the census, as the female population, which is usually in excess of the male in other parts of the world, appeared in the returns as such only in the case of the eight districts noted below:—

1. Tanjore.
2. Trichinopoly.
3. Madura.
4. Tinnevelly.
5. Coimbatore.
6. Salem.
7. Madras.
8. Puducottah Territory.

If the proportion shown for these districts, viz., 103·6 to 100, had prevailed in the other, the total female population would have been increased by 721,010. As it is, the proportion for the whole Presidency according to the returns was 99 females to 100 males. The lowest proportion, 93·9 females to 100 males, was found in Bellary, and the highest, 108·4 to 100, in the Puducottah territory. If the returns of the various classes of the population be examined it is found that the defect was almost entirely confined to the Hindus, including Native Christians, Jains, and Buddhists, as the disproportion in the case of Europeans was obviously the result of the peculiar circumstances of their position in the country:—

——	Total.	Males.	Females.	Proportion of Females to every 100 Males.
Hindus (including Native Christians and Jains).	29,669,296	14,909,056	14,760,240	99·0
Muhomedans	1,880,720	938,750	941,970	100·3
Europeans	14,561	9,957	4,604	46·2
Eurasians	26,450	13,091	13,359	102·0
Others	6,845	3,381	3,464	102·4
Total ...	31,597,872	15,874,235	15,723,637	99·0

The following table shows the proportions in the various districts:—

Divisions.	Total.			
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Proportion of Females to every 100 Males.
1. Ganjam	1,520,088	779,112	740,976	95·1
2. Vizagapatam	2,159,199	1,110,034	1,049,165	94·5
3. Godavari	1,592,939	803,603	789,336	98·2
4. Kistna	1,452,374	737,495	714,879	96·9
5. Nellore	1,376,811	707,392	669,419	94·6
6. Cuddapah	1,351,194	693,400	657,794	94·9
7. Bellary	1,668,006	860,173	807,833	93·9
8. Kurnool	959,640	490,883	468,757	95·5
9. Chingleput	938,184	475,968	462,216	97·1
10. North Arcot	2,015,278	1,020,678	994,600	97·4

Divisions.	Total.			
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Proportion of Females to every 100 Males.
11. South Arcot	1,755,817	885,922	869,895	98·2
12. Tanjore	1,973,731	953,968	1,019,763	106·9
13. Trichinopoly	1,200,408	588,134	612,274	104·1
14. Madura	2,266,615	1,112,066	1,154,549	103·8
15. Tinnevelly	1,693,959	836,515	857,444	102·5
16. Coimbatore	1,763,274	874,975	888,299	101·5
17. Nilgiris	49,501	27,192	22,309	82·0
18. Salem	1,966,995	975,502	991,493	101·6
19. South Canara	918,362	459,729	458,633	99·8
20. Malabar	2,261,250	1,134,889	1,126,361	99·2
21. Madras	397,552	194,676	202,876	104·2
Total ...	31,281,177	15,722,306	15,558,871	99
Puducottah Territory	316,695	151,929	164,766	108·4
Grand Total ...	31,597,872	15,874,235	15,723,637	99·0

The want of an accurate knowledge of their ages among the people, and their consequent readiness to adopt round numbers renders the usual quinquennial grouping unsuitable for India. The following statement shows the ages in decennial groups, exclusive of the Puducottah results :— Ages of the people.

Ages	Males.	Females.	Persons.
0 to 10	5,113,672	5,036,151	10,149,823
10 to 20	3,063,170	3,031,720	6,094,890
20 to 30	2,757,350	2,944,728	5,702,078
30 to 40	1,960,508	1,818,485	3,778,993
40 to 50	1,294,445	1,233,393	2,527,838
50 to 60	795,887	798,095	1,593,982
Above 60	482,697	501,052	983,749
Unknown ages	254,577	195,247	449,824
Total ...	15,722,306	15,558,871	31,281,177

In the table given below the percentage of population at each decennial period of age is compared with the proportions found at the British Census of 1861 :—

Ages.	10.		20.		30.		40.		50.		60.		Above 60.		Unknown.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
British Census ...	25·0	24·4	20·6	19·6	16·3	17·5	12·8	13·2	10·2	10·3	7·06	7·08	7·04	7·7	...	...
Madras	32·5	32·4	19·5	19·5	17·6	18·9	12·5	11·7	8·2	7·9	5·06	5·1	3·07	3·8	1·6	1·2

The result of the comparison is to show that the proportion of young children below ten years of age is very much greater in Madras than in England, and that this excess continues, though in a decreasing ratio up to the age of forty. At fifty the excess is the other way, and at ages above sixty the Madras proportion is not half that of the

British. The number of children and adults in the various districts is shown below :—

Districts.	Children.		Adults.		Total.	
	Boys under 12 Years.	Girls under 10 Years.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Ganjam	309,609	251,443	469,503	489,533	779,112	740,976
2. Vizagapatam*	370,285	308,506	579,890	597,080	1,110,034	1,049,165
3. Godavari	310,898	256,223	492,705	533,133	803,603	789,336
4. Kistna	271,008	233,490	466,487	481,389	737,495	714,879
5. Nellore	248,362	218,811	459,030	455,608	707,392	669,419
6. Cuddapah	237,325	205,334	456,075	452,460	693,400	657,794
7. Bellary	299,477	255,059	560,696	552,774	860,173	807,833
8. Kurnool	175,358	148,269	315,525	320,488	490,883	468,757
9. Chingleput	183,370	165,662	292,598	296,554	475,968	462,216
10. North Arcot	385,495	345,292	635,183	649,308	1,020,678	994,600
11. South Arcot	344,384	310,306	541,538	559,589	885,922	869,895
12. Tanjore	355,990	317,259	597,978	702,504	953,968	1,019,763
13. Trichinopoly	219,777	197,754	368,357	414,520	588,134	612,274
14. Madura	430,264	380,984	681,802	773,565	1,112,066	1,154,549
15. Tinnevelly	311,876	273,981	524,639	583,463	836,515	857,444
16. Coimbatore	338,298	302,560	536,677	585,739	874,975	888,299
17. Nilgiris	9,032	7,734	18,160	14,575	27,192	22,309
18. Salem	382,087	343,524	593,415	647,969	975,502	991,493
19. South Canara	165,322	137,470	294,407	321,163	459,729	458,633
20. Malabar	436,982	355,789	697,907	770,572	1,134,889	1,126,361
21. Madras	56,678	47,211	137,998	155,665	194,676	202,876
Total ...	5,841,827	5,055,661	9,711,570	10,357,631	15,722,306	15,558,871
Pudukottah Territory ...	55,644	50,861	96,285	113,905	151,929	164,766
Grand Total ...	5,897,471	5,106,522	9,807,855	10,471,536	15,874,235	15,723,637

Religions of the people.

The numbers of each great religious class were as follow :—

Hindus	28,863,978
Mahomedans	1,857,857
Christians	533,760
Jains and Buddhists	21,254
Other religions	4,328
Total ...	31,281,177

—Hindus.

The numbers returned under the four great divisons of Hindus were—

Sivaites	16,159,610
Vishnavaites	11,657,311
Lingayets	154,989
Other Hindus (including hill tribes)	892,068
Total ...	28,863,978

In the Northern Districts the Sivaites were in the minority. In the Ganjam District they were as one to ten of the Vishnavaites; in Vizagapatam as one to four; in the Godavari as one to three and a fraction; and only when the Kistna District was reached did the Sivaites approach in number to the Vishnavaites. In Nellore, Cuddapah, Bellary, Kurnool, Chingleput, North Arcot, and South Arcot the

* In the total number of males and females the population of Jeypore (males 168,909 + females 145,579 = total 314,488) is included, but not in the particulars, viz., "children" and "adults."

proportions of these two great divisions of the Hindu people were nearly equal, while in the districts to the south the Sivaites constituted the major portion of the Hindu population. In Tanjore they were nearly seven to one of the Vishnavaites; in Trichinopoly and Coimbatore about four to one; in Tinnevelly and Madura more than five to one; and in Salem two to one. On the Western Coast they were in the proportion of two to one in Canara, and about sixty-seven to one in Malabar. In connection with the above proportions, it is to be borne in mind that in modern times all demon-worshippers, who seek to appease the power of evil, are included under the head of Siva worshippers. The Lingayet sect dates from the twelfth century, and owes its origin to Basava, the son of a Sivaite Brahmin, and prime minister of the king of Kalyanapura, a town on the Western Coast, about forty miles north of Mangalore, and at that time the capital of Karnatacal. Its distinctive tenets are the unity of the godhead represented by Siva, the absence of caste distinctions, and the necessity of respecting women. The Lingayets or Jangams do not appear to have spread beyond the south and south-west of India, and they are now numerous only in the west of Mysore.

—Mahomedans.

The numbers of the different divisions of the Mahomedans were as follow:—

	Population.	Per Cent.
Soonees	1,654,529	89·0
Shias	69,302	3·7
Wahabis	3,954	0·2
Unspecified	130,072	7·1
Total ...	1,857,857	100·0

The Soonees abounded in all the local and national divisions of the Mahomedan community, but principally among the Moplahs of the Western Coast, of whom 95·8 were returned as Soonees. The largest proportion of Shias was found amongst Mahomedans of Pathan or Mogul descent, in each of which classes about 13 per cent. of the whole were Shias. Outside the town of Madras the Wahabis were few in number.

—Christians.

The Christian population of the Madras Presidency in Southern India, exclusive of 11,360 in the Puducottah territory, was made up as follows:—

Europeans and East Indians	40,879
Natives of India	490,299
Nationality unspecified	2,582
Total ...	533,760

Nearly one-fifth of the whole Christian population was found in the Tinnevelly District, and next to this they were numerically strongest

in Madura, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, South Canara, and Malabar. Christianity has been known in Southern India for many centuries. A Pehlevi inscription in the ancient church of the Little Mount near Madras indicates a settlement of Manichæans or Persian Christians on the Eastern Coast as well as on the west, and tradition speaks of the preaching of St. Thomas in the districts of Madras, Tinnevelly, and Malabar. The adherents of the Syrian Church in Malabar, Travancore, and Cochin are the most ancient Christian community in Southern India; and after these come the Roman Catholics. The Protestant Churches only date from about the commencement of the century, but their progress since that time has been considerable. The following table shows how far the various castes and nationalities had contributed to the formation of the Native Christian community:—

	Roman Catholics.	Protestants.
Brahmins	3,658	39
Kshatriyas	4,535	565
Chetties	3,444	375
Cultivating Castes	35,742	6,147
Shepherd Castes	2,462	395
Artisan Castes	5,215	399
Writer Castes	143	25
Weaver Castes	5,027	595
Agricultural laborers (Vunnias)	90,852	11,411
Potters	622	110
Mixed Castes (Satani)	6,861	1,586
Fishermen	14,459	278
Shanars	26,724	36,470
Barbers	906	420
Washermen	1,840	348
Other Hindus	49,389	3,369
Pariahs	131,367	30,164
Mahomedans	17	5
Nazaranies (wrongly classed Mussulmans)	13,808	527

—Jains and Buddhists.

It will be observed that 3,697 were of Brahmin origin. A large majority of these were Roman Catholic Christians of South Canara. The Buddhists are practically extinct in Southern India, but an offshoot, or perhaps heretical branch survives in the Jains, who numbered 21,254 chiefly in the districts of North Arcot (7,889), South Arcot (3,861), and Canara (8,339). Communities also exist in Western Mysore. The leading tenets of the Jains are denial of the divine origin and infallibility of the Vedas; reverence for sanctified or deified ascetics; and veneration for animal life.

Castes—Brahmins.

The number of persons classified in the census returns as Brahmins was 1,094,455, of whom 547,027 were males and 548,418 females, the proportion of the latter to the former being 100·3 to 100 males. The distribution of this important caste is not a little curious, and shows very conclusively that the Aryan colonization of the south could never

have been the result of the conquest and subjugation of the aboriginal races. The Brahmins were most numerous in Canara and in the northern districts of the Presidency. In Canara they were 13 per cent.; and in Ganjam 6·9 per cent. of the Hindu population. In the Godavari District 5·8 per cent.; in the Kistna 7·2 per cent.; in Nellore 4·9 per cent.; in Chingleput 3·6 per cent.; in South Arcot 1·9 per cent. In the Tanjore District, still further south, there was a sudden rise to 6·8 per cent. In Trichinopoly again the proportion diminished to 2·7 per cent.; in Madura they were only 1·8 per cent.; in Tinnevelly, the most southern district, 3·5 per cent. They were rare in Coimbatore and Salem, where the proportions were 1·6 and 1·5 per cent. respectively. In the remaining districts they averaged from 2·3 to 3·6 per cent. of the Hindu population. For the whole Presidency the average proportion of Brahmins as 3.7 per cent. of the Hindu population. The unequal distribution of the Brahmin population is probably the result of the occupation of favorite sites by the Aryan people in ancient times.

—Present occupations of Brahmins.

The male Brahmin population of the Presidency was 547,027, and of these 338,934, or 61·9 per cent., were entered in the occupation columns, and thus accounted for :—

Major Heading.	Minor Heading.	Number employed.	Proportion in 100.
Professional ...	Government Civil Service	8,837	1·6
	Military or Police Service	747	0·1
	Learned Professions	18,499	3·4
	Minor do.	55,504	10·2
Domestic ...	Personal Service	19,584	3·6
Commercial ...	Traders	12,910	2·4
	Conveyors	969	0·2
Agricultural ...	Cultivators	132,443	24·2
Industrial ...	Dress	165	0·03
	Food	1,778	0·3
	Metals	20	0·003
	Construction	55	0·01
	Books	40	0·007
	Household Goods	16	0·003
	Combustibles	11	0·002
Indefinite and unproductive.	Laborers	5,384	1·0
	Property	64,545	11·7
	Unproductive	15,529	2·9
	Others	1,898	0·3
		338,934	61·9

—Divisions of Brahmins.

The principal divisions are the Pancha Dravida and Pancha Gauda, sub-divided as follows : —

Dravidas.	*Gaudas.*
1. Andhra or Talinga.	1. Kanǒjia.
2. Mahratta.	2. Saraswat.
3. Dravida.	3. Gauda.
4. Karnataca.	4. Utkala.
5. Garjar.	5. Mathila.

When the Mahrattas overran the south and established a kingdom in Tanjore, the Brahmins settled wherever they could obtain lands. The Andhra or Telinga were mostly found in the Northern Districts, and the Dravidas in the Tamil country. In Malabar the Namburi Brahmins were most prominent. The origin of the latter is not very clear, but tradition tells of their ancestors being a race of fishermen. Karnataca Brahmins were most numerous in Bellary and Canara.

—Kshatriyas. The census returns showed only 190,415 persons of the Kshatriya caste, the majority of which were in Vizagapatam, Godavari, Nellore, Cuddapah, North Arcot, South Canara, and the Town of Madras. The principal sub-divisions of the caste found in the Presidency are—

Arasár (Tamil).	Pandyakulam.
Oorya Kshatriya.	Rajavar (Telugu).
Bondiliar.	Nandamandalam Rajulu.
Bhat Rajah.	Murikinati Rajah.
Manu.	Suryavamsapu Rajalu.

Of these, the Bondiliars and the Bhat Rajahs were the most common.

—The Trading Castes. Throughout the Presidency 714,712 persons, or 2·4 per cent. of the Hindu population, were returned as belonging to the various trading castes. The greater part of these were classified as "Chetties" or "Beri Chetties" and "Komaties." Besides these, there were Banyias, Márwáries, Oilmongers, and Kásikkárá or bankers. Many of the above wear the sacred thread and claim to be Vaisyas. Some are clearly foreigners, and others, not of recent immigration, show signs of Aryan origin. A large number however are clearly of aboriginal descent, and, in many cases, of Sudra origin. The trading Castes are more numerous in proportion to other classes in Kistna, Nellore, Cuddapah, Kurnool, Madura, Coimbatore, and, most of all, in the Town of Madras. The Chetties are few in number in Canara only, where the trade of the country seems to have fallen into the hands of Brahmins, Mussulmans, and others.

—The Agricultural Castes. The Vellalars may be taken as a type of the agriculturists in the Tamil country. They speak a pure Tamil and no other language, and are chiefly the ryots or farmers of the district they inhabit. Those who are well to do, do not work with their own hands, but like the Brahmins, employ persons of inferior castes to do their menial work. They are mostly Sivaites, but their chief worship is that of the village gods. In some districts they have adopted the title of Pillai, which is also used by the shepherd and accountant classes. The Velama castes in the Telugu country are practically the same as the Vellalars in the Tamil District. They held formerly on military tenures. The cultivators of the Ceded and Central Districts are called Kápus or Kápalu. In the Northern Districts they are known as Kápus or

Naidus, Kammavárs, and Kammás. In Canara they are called Bants and Nadavars. In Malabar the Nairs are the corresponding class of land-owners or occupiers, and these appear formerly to have had a military tenure of their lands. The subdivisions of the cultivators are too extensive for enumeration here. The number of the population classed as belonging to the agricultural castes was 7,826,127, or 26·6 of the entire Hindu population. They were most numerous in the districts of Vizagapatam, Cuddapah, and Coimbatore; but in South Arcot, Canara, Trichinopoly, and Tanjore, their place seems to have been taken in a great part by the Brahmins on the one hand and the Vunnian or Pully castes on the other.

—Shepherd and Pastoral Castes.

The principal Tamil representatives of the shepherd and Pastoral castes are the Idaiyars. The Telugu term is Golla. The numbers at the time of the census were 1,730,681, or 5·9 per cent. of the Hindu population. They were most numerous in the inland districts where the country is hilly and mountainous, or from the nature of the climate unadapted for cultivation. In Bellary and Kurnool they numbered 14·1 and 11·3 per cent. of Hindu population, but in Canara and Malabar only ·1 and ·2 per cent., the climate there being inimical to sheep and goats, and the breed of cattle inferior. The shepherd castes were also comparatively few in the fertile and fully cultivated deltas of the Godavari and Cauvery. A large proportion of the members of these castes have now adopted occupations other than their original caste pursuits. In religion, they are chiefly Vishnavaites, but there are a few Sivaites or demon-worshippers.

—The Artisan Castes.

The artisan castes in Southern India have always maintained a struggle for a higher place in the social scale than that allotted to them by Brahminical authority. They are known by the Tamil name of "Kámálar" and the Telugu "Kamsála" or "Panchála." They numbered at the last census 785,085, or 2·7 per cent. of the Hindu population, being most numerous in Canara, Malabar, Vizagapatam, and Madura. Of the whole number nearly one-half were employed in occupations connected with metals, and the majority of the remainder as carpenters, builders, &c. A very small proportion of these castes are Vishnavaites, the bulk calling themselves Sivaites, but in reality worshipping either Kali or the village deity and burning their dead.

—The Writer or Accountant Classes.

The caste name of the writer or accountant class in Tamil is "Kanakkan," in Telugu "Karnam." They numbered only 107,652 persons and were very irregularly distributed, being almost unknown in some districts where their hereditary occupation appears to have been usurped by Brahmins or Vellalars. The term "Conicopillay" applied to agents, purveyors, &c., is a corruption of "Kanakkanppillai,"

a writer or accountant, "pillay" being a title of respect usually accorded to them as well as to the agricultural and shepherd castes.

—Weaver Castes.

The weaver castes formed at one time an important section of the community, but at the last census their number was only 1,071,781, or 3·7 per cent. of the Hindu population. They were distributed all over the country, but were most numerous in the cotton-producing districts of Vizagapatam, Godavari, Kistna, Cuddapah, Bellary, Coimbatore, Salem, and Tinnevelly. The Tamil weaving castes are—

Kaikalar.	Jendraver.	Sedan.
Seringar.	Saliyar	Silupan.

and the Telugu

Sale.	Padmay Sale.	Devangalu.
Jendrar.	Thokat.	

As usual in castes of this grade, the Sivaites bury and the Vishnavaites burn their dead. Many of the weavers have adopted the Jangam or Lingayet religion. Their occupation is mainly confined to the original calling of the caste.

—Agricultural Laboring Castes.

The Vannias or Pullies are the great agricultural laboring class of the Southern Districts. The term Naick is usually affixed to the name of the Vannias, and the Naicks of Madura and Tinnevelly were great men not very long ago. There are about thirty sub-divisions or branches of the laboring castes, the most important of which are the Marawars or Kallans, formerly turbulent tribes, addicted to thieving and general lawlessness. The Marawars were most numerous in Madura and Tinnevelly, and the Kallans in Madura, Trichinopoly, and Tanjore, the Rajah of Puducottah being the acknowledged head of the tribe. The Oddars or Wadavars are a laboring tribe of Telugu origin, great at tank-digging, well-sinking, and road-making. The Upparava, a sub-division of the Vunniah caste, are chiefly engaged in the manufacture of salt on the sea-coast and the saltpetre in the inland districts. In the whole Presidency the agricultural laboring castes numbered 3,944,463, or 12·6 of the entire population. In the Telugu country they formed only about 3 per cent. of the population, but were more than 30 per cent. in South Arcot, Tanjore, and Trichinopoly. In religion they called themselves Sivaites, and occasionally Vishnavaites, but in reality they are demon-worshippers.

—Potter Castes.

At the last census the Potter castes numbered 250,343 persons or about ·9 per cent. of the Hindu population, distributed all over the country, but being most numerous in Kurnool, Madura, Nellore, and Canara. The majority still follow their caste occupation of pottery.

—Mixed Castes.

Classes of persons being about 200 different designations were classified in the returns under the head of "Mixed Castes," as it was

found impossible to classify them with any of the recognized and defined orders of the people. The principal of these were the "Satanis," the followers of "Chaitanya," a reformed of the fifteen century, or of his disciple Sanatana. The number grouped in those mixed castes in the census returns was 714,233, or about 2·4 per cent. of the Hindu population. The Satanis were really very few in number, and the bulk of the mixed castes were a nondescript people, devoted to religion or temple service.

—Other Castes.

The remaining numerically important castes are the fishing and hunting castes, called in Tamil "Sembadaven," and in Telugu "Besta." They numbered 971,837, or 3·3 per cent. of the Hindu population. In the coast and jungle districts most of them get their living by hunting and fishing, but large numbers are now engaged in cultivation and other pursuits. The palm-cultivator castes are numerous only in the districts in which the cultivation is practised. They are called Shanars in Tinnevelly and the South, Tiyars in Malabar, Billawars in Canara, and Idiyars in the northern or Telugu districts. They numbered 1,664,862 at the last census, or about 5·7 per cent. of the Hindu population. They are clearly an aboriginal people, and, as a rule, demon-worshippers. The barber caste is called "Ambattan" in Tamil, and "Mungala" in Telugu. Their numbers were 340,450 distributed pretty equally throughout every district. Of the male members of the barber caste, 42·6 per cent. followed the original calling.

—Hill and Wandering Tribes.

The number of persons unclassified according to castes amounted to 2,666,890, or about 9·1 per cent. of the Hindu population. In the settled and cultivated portions of the country the proportions were lower, but in the hilly districts of Ganjam and Vizagapatam, Kurnool, Nilgiris, South Canara, and Malabar they varied from 54·2 per cent. in the Nilgiris, and 31·4 in Ganjam, to 7·4 in Kurnool. Numerically speaking, the Khonds and Sowras of the Northern Districts are the most important of the hill tribes. South of the Kistna are found the Yanadis, Yerakalas, and Chentsus, practically the same people as those further north, but in some parts partially civilized and engaged in settled occupations. Further south and west, in Salem and the neighbouring districts, are found a tribe of hill people called "Malayalies" not engaged as cultivators and shepherds. In Coimbatore, Malabar, and Canara the Mulcers and Kaders live by the products and the chase and on roots and herbs requiring no special cultivation. On the Nilgiris the Badaghers, who are employed in the cultivation, have evidently moved up from the plains. The Todas, a stalwart and rather fine-looking race with a Jewish cast of feature, are peculiar to the high elevations of the Nilgiris, and are exclusively a pastoral people,

worshipping local deities or demons, and addicted to polyandry. They are now dying out, having numbered only 693 at the last census. All over the country there are wandering tribes of carriers known as Brinjaries, Lambadies, &c. The religious beliefs of the aboriginal tribes have been modified to a great extent by the prevailing phases of Hinduism, and they are often called Vishnavaites or Sivaites. Practically, however, they are worshippers of local deities, generally females with power to do harm, and required to be propitiated by bloody sacrifices. The following list contains the names of some of the principal hill and wandering tribes:—

Bududukar	...	A class of mendicants.
Badaghers	...	Cultivators in the Nilgiris.
Gadala	...	A sub-division of Jat tribe.
Irulars	...	Hill tribe of the Nilgiris.
Jetti	...	Boxers, wrestlers, shampooers.
Jógis	...	Beggars and mendicants.
Koravars	...	A wandering tribe common in many districts of the Carnatic, addicted to thieving, &c.
Kótars	...	Artisans of the Nilgiri tribes.
Kumari	...	Jungle cultivators.
Lambadi	...	A gipsy tribe, carrying salt and grain.
Malayalies	...	Inhabitants of hills.
Mulcers	...	Tribes of the western jungles.
Pyelavar	...	Jugglers.
Pambattar	...	Snake-charmers.
Tombiravan	...	Jugglers.
Villi	...	A jungle tribe.
Yénadi	...	A wild tribe of the Eastern Coast districts.
Dommora	...	Juggler tribes.
Brinjaries	...	Gipsies and grain-carriers.
Chentsu	...	Hunters and forest races.
Yerakala	...	

—Pariah or Outcaste Tribes.

There is no part of the country in which the Pariah or out-caste are not to be found under various designations. In Tamil they are called Pariahs; in Telugu, Mala; in Canarese, Holia; in Malayalum, Poliyar; and Dheda in Mahratti. They are everywhere the menial servants of the country, and in times prior to the British rule were the slaves of the superior castes. Their numbers at the census were 4,761,503, or 16·2 per cent. of the Hindu population, four times as numerous as the Brahmins. The proportions in the different districts varies from 8·6 in Vizagapatam to 26 per cent. in Chingleput and South Arcot. As regards their occupation, the Pariahs do not now materially differ from any other class of the community. In religion they are nominally Sivaites or Vishnavaites, but practically worshippers of village idols and demons.

—Mahomedans.

The Mahomedans were classified as follows in the census returns:—

1. Labbay.
2. Mapilah (Moplahs).
3. Arab.
4. Sheik.
5. Syud.
6. Pathan.
7. Moghul.
8. Other Mahomedans.

The origin of the Labbays cannot now be definitely ascertained. The word is used to signify the descendants of foreign traders (Arabs and Persians) and women of the country. Beyond their customs and dress, there is now nothing to distinguish them from the other people of the country. They numbered 312,088, or 16·7 per cent. of the total Mahomedan population, and were nearly all found in the districts south of Madras. The Mapilahs or Moplahs are confined almost exclusively to the districts between the Western Ghauts and the sea. They were originally of Arab extraction, but their number has been greatly added by conversions, forcible and otherwise, among the people of the country. At the last census they numbered 612,789, or 32·7 per cent. of the Mahomedan population, 549,912 being found in Malabar and 65,641 in Canara. They are usually a hardworking, plodding, and frugal people, but under the influence of religious excitement they have often been a source of danger to the public peace. A few Mahomedans, 2,121 in all, chiefly in the Trichinopoly and Tinnevelly Districts, returned themselves as "Arabs." A large proportion of the Mussulman population of the Presidency consists of the descendants of converts who at the time of their conversion assumed the name of Sheik or Syud. The number of "Sheiks" returned at the census was 511,112 and of Syud 89,219. The term "Pathan" is applied to Mahomedans of Afghan descent. They numbered 70,943 chiefly in Ganjam, Coimbatore, and Salem. The Moghuls are the reputed descendants of Tartar chiefs who followed Tamerlane into India, and are found chiefly in the Northern and Ceded Districts and in Salem. The following abstract shows numbers in each division and their proportions to the whole Mahomedan community:—

Divisions.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Proportion of Females to 100 Males.	Proportion to the Gross Mahomedan Population.
Labbays	146,493	165,595	312,088	113·0	16·7
Mapilahs	307,321	305,468	612,789	99·4	32·7
Arabs	922	1,199	2,121	130·0	0·1
Sheiks	260,817	250,295	511,112	96·0	27·3
Syuds	45,883	43,336	89,219	94·4	4·8
Pathans	36,115	34,828	70,943	96·4	3·8
Moghuls	6,329	6,078	12,407	96·0	0·7
Other Mahomedans ...	130,535	130,700	261,535	99·9	14·0
Total ...	934,715	937,499	1,872,214	100·3	100·0

The occupations of the people.

The number of persons classified as following some occupation was 9,930,012, or 63·1 per cent. of the whole male population to which the classification was confined, as the inclusion of females leads to fallacious results owing to the practice always prevailing under such circumstances of entering females as following the occupation of the head of the family. The number of males engaged in the classified occupations was as follows:—

	Number.	Proportion of each Sub-division.	Proportion of Major Groups.
1. Government Service, Civil	57,251	or 0·4	2·0
2. Do. do. Military & Police ...	54,827	„ 0·3	
3. Learned Professions	37,249	„ 0·2	
4. Minor do.	172,116	„ 1·1	
5. Personal Service	519,350	„ 3·3	3·3
6. Trade and Commerce	534,662	„ 3·4	3·7
7. Conveyance of men, animals, and goods ...	48,108	„ 0·3	
8. Cultivators	4,878,890	„ 31·1	31·1
9. Employments connected with dress or textile fabrics.	540,061	„ 3·4	7·72
10. Employments connected with food, drink, and stimulants.	385,287	„ 2·4	
11. Workers in metals	126,117	„ 0·8	
12. Workers in constructive works, buildings, &c.	121,036	„ 0·8	
13. Employments connected with paper and books.	3,421	„ 0·02	
14. Household goods	71,805	„ 0·5	
15. Combustibles	13,189	„ 0·1	
16. Laborers for hire (unskilled)	2,071,602	„ 13·1	13·1
17. Persons subsisting on property, or of independent means.	176,580	„ 1·1	2·2
18. Unproductive, such as mendicants, strollers, &c.	103,778	„ 0·7	
19. Persons unclassified under any of the foregoing heads.	64,683	„ 0·4	
Total ...	9,930,012	„ 63·1	

Education.

All that the census professed to ascertain in regard to the education of the people was the number of persons, male and female, of each religion able to read and write; and of the whole population only 1,530,150, or about 5 per cent. possessed these qualifications, the proportion being rendered unusually small by the almost total absence of education among the females. The northern districts were the most backward, and in the south also the district of Salem showed a proportion of only 2·8 per cent. Outside the Presidency town female education has made the greatest advance in Tinnevelly, owing to the labors of the Protestant Missions in that district. While the general average of males able to read and write is 5 per cent., the Hindus have only 4·8 per cent., the Mahomedans 4·9, Native Christians 7·4, Europeans and East Indians 53·3, Jain 12·9, and "Others" 18·4 per cent. The following table shows the numbers and proportions of the population able to read and write in the several districts:—

Districts.	Population.	Number of Persons able to read and write.	Percentage of Columns 3 to 2.	Districts.	Population.	Number of Persons able to read and write.	Percentage of Columns 3 to 2.
Ganjam	1,388,976	35,362	2·5	Madura	2,266,615	134,567	5·9
Vizagapatam ...	1,844,711	42,449	2·3	Tinnevelly ...	1,693,959	138,074	8·2
Godavari ...	1,592,939	47,202	3·0	Coimbatore ...	1,763,274	63,213	3·6
Kistna	1,452,374	58,173	4·0	Nilgiris	49,501	3,990	8·1
Nellore	1,376,811	55,588	4·0	Salem	1,966,995	55,183	2·8
Guddapah ...	1,351,194	44,179	3·3	South Canara ...	918,362	51,905	3·5
Bellary	1,668,606	69,576	4·2	Malabar	2,261,250	119,071	5·3
Kurnool	959,640	35,918	3·7	Madras	397,552	72,865	18·3
Chingleput ...	938,184	74,492	7·9				
North Arcot ...	2,015,278	109,038	5·4	Total ...	30,835,577	1,530,150	5·0
South Arcot ...	1,755,817	93,920	5·3	Puducottah Territory ...	316,695	19,857	6·3
Tanjore	1,973,731	173,349	8·8				
Trichinopoly ...	1,200,408	72,086	6·0	Grand Total ...	31,152,277	1,550,007	5·0

The number and proportion of boys and girls at the time of the census were :—

Population ...	Males under 20	8,176,842
	Females under 12	5,584,364
	Total ...	13,761,206
Schools	For Boys	3,922
	Mixed	296
	Girls	163
	Total ...	4,381
Pupils	Boys	122,141
	Girls	10,781
	Total ...	132,859
Proportion of pupils to 100,000 children.	Boys	1493·7
	Girls	191·9
	Total ...	965·04

The above table, however, only includes schools brought under the inspection of the officers of the Educational Department, and takes no notice of the great majority of the indigenous village schools scattered all over the country. The following list of matriculated students shows the extent to which the various classes of the community have availed themselves of the means introduced of late years for the higher education of the people :—

European and East Indians	424
Brahmins	2,058
Hindus, other than Brahmins	856
Native Christians	294
Mahomedans	61
Total ...	3,693

In the following table the infirmities of the general population are given as returned in the census. Persons of unsound mind appear to

Infirm persons.

number about 0·45 per 1,000. In the "deaf or dumb" return persons deaf by age are included. The blind are about 1·9 per 1,000, most of them being aged. Leprosy appears to be less common inland than on the coast, and the proportion in the several districts ranges from 0·2 to 1·0 per 1,000 :—

Infirm.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Insane	4,088	3,447	7,535
Idiotic	3,491	2,991	6,482
Deaf *or* Dumb	21,373	19,596	40,969
Blind	27,984	32,369	60,353
Leprous	9,240	4,607	13,847

General comparative vital statistics.

The following table gives at a glance the most general results in the Presidency statistics, comparing them with those of the whole of India, and in some cases with those of England :—

——	England.	British India.	Madras Presidency.
Total population, excluding feudatory States.	...	190,563,048	31,231,177
Total area, square miles, excluding feudatory States.	...	904,049	138,318
Average population per square mile ...	422	211	226
Average number of houses per square mile ...	73	41	42
Average number of persons per house ...	5·33	5·14	5·60
Total population, including feudatory States	...	238,830,958	33,308,225
Total area, including feudatory States, square miles.	...	1,450,744	148,128
Population of largest town	London. 3,254,000	Calcutta. 795,000	* Madras. 398·000
Proportion of Hindus to total population ...	...	73·07	92·27
Proportion of Mahomedans to total population.	...	21·45	5·94
Proportion of Christians to total population.	...	·47	+ 1·71
Number of persons employed in professions and Government service.	...	2,404,855	289,676
Number of persons employed in agriculture.	...	37,462,220	5,215,847

Partial census of 1878.

A partial census of certain selected parts of the Presidency was taken on the 15th March 1878. This was done in accordance with instructions received from the Government of India, and with the view of collecting statistics to throw light on the results of the recent famine. An enumeration was made in one taluk out of each of the six severely distressed districts of Bellary, Kurnool, Cuddapah, Nellore, Coimbatore, and Chingleput; the taluks thus chosen being according to the best estimation representative, and neither the most nor the least distressed. An enumeration was made in all the nine taluks which constitute the district of Salem, this area being chosen as a fairly representative complete famine district. An enumeration was also made in one taluk out of each of the districts of the Kistna,

* Slightly more than in Manchester and Birmingham, each of which towns has about 350,000 inhabitants.

+ The Christians in Madras form thus five-sixths of the whole number of Christians in British India.

Trichinopoly, and Tinnevelly, in part of which some distress had been felt, but in other parts of which crops had been saved by irrigation; and in one taluk of Tanjore, throughout almost the whole of which the crops had been saved by the Cauvery river. The four taluks last mentioned were selected as being representative of non-famine districts bordering on the distressed area; where the people had not suffered actual famine, but had been affected by scarcity and high prices. No enumeration was made in any portion of the Madura and North Arcot districts, in which the distress had been about equal to that in Coimbatore and Salem.

—Absolute results.

The following are the more important of the absolute results arrived at in the partial census, as tabulated in the first statement given in the special appendix at end of this volume. In the six taluks first mentioned the population was in March 1878 less by 16·1 per cent. than it was at the general Presidency census of 15th November 1871; the population of the entire Salem district was less by 21·1 per cent.; the population of the three taluks representative of the three slightly distressed districts was more by 6 per cent.; and the population of the taluk in Tanjore District was more by 9·5 per cent. From the returns is ascertainable the increase or decrease of separate village populations contained in each of these areas. Thus; in the six typical famine taluks the number of villages showing decrease of population was as 85·8 to one hundred, and that of villages showing increase as 13·6 to one hundred; in the entire Salem District the corresponding figures were 81·1 and 19·3; in the four selected taluks of non-famine districts the corresponding figures were 31·8 and 67·4, the balance of proportion being reversed. With regard to towns, those in the six famine taluks showed almost invariably a diminution of population, those in Salem District showed a decrease except where there were camps or large relief-works, and those in the four non-famine taluks showed a uniform increase. In 1871 the recorded proportion of men to women in the six famine taluks was as 100 to 96·3, and in 1878 it was as 100 to 99·2, showing the male population as having diminished more than the female in the ratio of nearly 3 per cent.; in Salem District the corresponding figures were as 100 to 101·6 and as 100 to 106·2, showing the male population as having diminished more than the female in the ratio of about 4½ per cent.; in the four non-famine taluks the corresponding figures were as 100 to 106·8 and as 100 to 103·4, showing the male population as having increased more than the female in the ratio of 3·4 per cent. Certain results are also observable as regards the age of the populations found to exist in 1871 and 1878. In the six separate famine taluks the decrease of males over 10 years of age was in the ratio of 14·1 to a hundred to the original number of similar males, while that of males

under 10 years of age was in the ratio of 20·8 to a hundred to the original numbers; or again, for females, the decrease was as 8·8 per cent. for persons over 10 years of age, and 23·5 per cent. for persons under. In the Salem District the corresponding figures were for males 18·5 per cent. and 28·3 per cent., and for females 13·3 per cent. and 29·6 per cent. In the four non-famine taluks the increase of males over 10 years of age was in the ratio of 8·8 per cent. to the original number of similar males, while that of males under 10 years of age was in the ratio of 5·8 per cent. to the original number; for females the figures here were plus 7·1 and minus 1·0 respectively.

—Accuracy of figures.

Two observations are necessary with regard to the accuracy of the figures just quoted. In the first place all the 1871 figures here given are those of the village list of 1871, and are slightly higher than those which were finally accepted in the Central Census Office of that year; on the question of absolute increase or decrease of population the error is not large enough to be of much account. In the second place the 1871 figures relating to distinction of the sexes were admitted at the time to be in many localities imperfect, and perhaps the same was the case in a small degree in the recent special census; arguments regarding the proportion of the sexes in the two years would have to be made with some reserve. It must also be noticed that the comparative columns given in the statement in the special appendix showing number of houses are inaccurate according to the results of the Central Census Office; the 1871 figures being not slightly, but very considerably understated. The difference here is so great that the results have not been quoted.

—Population lost since 1871.

Putting aside for the moment any question other than that of total gain or loss in population, the inaccuracies just mentioned are of little or no consequence. Looking to the general areas; the Salem District, the figures relating to which are necessarily more representative than those relating to the single taluks of other famine districts, lost altogether 417,138 persons, or 21·1 per cent. of 1,977,034, the original population; while on the other hand the three selected non-famine taluks gained 5·8 per cent. on their original population, and the Tanjore Taluk gained 9·5 per cent. Looking to villages; a decreased population is observable in from 80 to 90 per cent. of the villages of the selected famine area, and an increased population is observable in about 70 per cent. of the villages of the selected non-famine area. The town populations within the famine area show a decrease in numbers in all cases where they were not abnormally augmented by the existence of famine-relief operations, while in the non-famine area the town populations show an increase. If an attempt is made to argue from the ascertained loss or gain in these selected areas to the unascertained loss or gain in a larger area or in

the Presidency at large, it is evident that the results will be of a more or less conjectural character.

—Causes of ditto.

With regard to the population lost, that result may have been caused either by decrease of births, by increase of deaths, or by migration to localities outside the selected area whether within or without the Presidency. The two former causes are of a different order to that last named, as this may be considered to be almost immediately remediable whereas those cannot. As to diminished births or increased deaths, the absolute results of the registrations of the year under review will be mentioned hereafter; but birth and death registration is at present too imperfectly developed a machinery in this Presidency either to establish any certain ratio between these two factors, or to give in absolute numbers for any period their sum. This would be impracticable even for the year under review; much more so therefore for a period of six and a quarter years. On the question again of shifting of the population, definite figures are equally wanting as in the case of the results of birth and death registration. Migration during the recent famine from the distressed parts to others not distressed must have occurred, but it is a matter of opinion whether this was to a large extent or to a small extent. Emigration takes place annually, but the relations between emigration and return immigration are uncertain. The Government are not in a position to give any opinion as to the proportion in which the different causes of loss of population since 1871 may have operated.

—Question of yearly normal increase.

In considering the question of gain or loss of population a still further element of uncertainty is introduced by the question whether it is necessary or not to allow for a normal yearly increase of the population in this Presidency. If this is the case the amount of such normal increase from November 1871 to November 1876, the date of commencement of the famine, should be added to the losses and should be deducted from the gains ascertained at the recent special census. In the tabulated statement prepared upon the special census figures, additional columns were inserted showing the variation in the results on the assumption that there had been a yearly increment of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This increment raised the ascertained loss since the date of the 1871 census in the six selected taluks from 13·8 per cent. to 20·0 per cent., and the loss in the Salem district from 21·1 per cent. to 26·8 per cent.; while it converted the gain of 6·4 per cent. in the three non-famine taluks into a loss of 1·2 per cent., and reduced the gain of 9·5 per cent. in the Tanjore taluk to a gain of 1·7 per cent. The absolute numbers lost in the six distressed taluks rose on this assumption from 119,143 to 185,548, and those in Salem rose from 417,138 to 569,956; while in the three non-famine taluks the gain of 31,872 was turned into a loss of 6,523, and in the Tanjore taluk

the gain of 21,250 was reduced to a gain of 4,112. The yearly increment of 1½ per cent. was allowed a place in the census statement in compliance with certain arguments; but on the whole it appears useless to assume any definite figure for this Presidency until the general census of 1881 has given better data on which to form an opinion, and even then it can only be expected that results will be given for parts of the country which have not been disturbed by the recent calamity.

SANITARY.

Sanitary Commissioner, &c.

The only purely sanitary officer in this Presidency is the Sanitary Commissioner. This officer is the adviser of Government in its Civil and Military Departments, of Local Fund Boards, and of Municipalities on all questions relating to the prevention of disease and the preservation of health. He possesses no executive power, and his functions are confined to the collection of sanitary information and to inspection and report. He receives weekly returns of sickness and mortality from military hospitals and annual reports of cantonments, monthly returns and annual reports from Central and District Jails, and monthly returns of births and deaths from Districts, Municipalities, and Cantonments; and during the prevalence of cholera he receives daily returns of attacks and deaths from District Officers. Civil hospitals do not send returns to the Sanitary Commissioner. The information thus collected is recorded and tabulated; and abstracts of the cholera returns are supplied daily to the Quartermaster-General, the Surgeons-General of the Indian Medical and British Medical Departments, and the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India. Budget estimates of Local Fund Boards are submitted to the Sanitary Commissioner before being forwarded for the sanction of Government, in order that he may express an opinion upon the sufficiency of the proposed provision for sanitary wants. From Municipalities the Sanitary Commissioner receives an annual sanitary report. In tours the Sanitary Commissioner inspects jails and lunatic asylums, of which he is an official visitor, Municipal towns and villages, forwarding to the responsible authorities such suggestions for the improvement of their sanitary condition as may occur to him. Notes of these tours of inspection are printed in his monthly proceedings. In the same proceedings, which are supplied to all Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, are published replies to references on sanitary subjects and sanitary papers communicated by Government to the Sanitary Commissioner. In this manner each local body is made

aware of the sanitary improvements which are being carried out in other parts of the Presidency and of India. The Sanitary Commissioner holds a somewhat ambiguous position with reference to the Civil and Military Departments of Government. The original Sanitary Commission and its successor, the Sanitary Commissionership, were instituted chiefly with a view to military requirements, and they were at first connected with the Military Department and communicated with Government through the Military Secretary. The civil portion of the Commissioner's duties however gradually assumed larger proportions, and it was decided in 1869 that he should be thenceforward, as in Bengal, under the orders of the Civil Department, and that all expenses connected with the appointment should be transferred to the Civil Budget. The duties of the Sanitary Commissioner lie now mainly in the civil branch of the administration. One result of the double position occupied by the Sanitary Commissioner is that he has a different local jurisdiction in the two capacities. Thus the garrisons in Burmah, Secunderabad, the Mysore country, and the Central Provinces are all under inspection by the Sanitary Commissioner for the Madras Presidency; in civil matters however he has no jurisdiction beyond the Presidency limits. Quite recently, the Inspector of Vaccination has been constituted a Deputy Sanitary Commissioner, and in addition to his particular charge of the Vaccination Department he has been required to take a part in the sanitary inspection of the districts he visits. The Deputy Inspectors of Vaccination are also required to examine the village birth and death registers, and to report on the water-supply, conservancy, and public health of the villages they visit, to inspect the work of vaccinators. These officers in future will be required to pass an examination in practical hygiene, so as to make them qualified to act as Sanitary Inspectors. The remarks of the Deputy Inspectors of Vaccination on the condition of villages they visit are transmitted to the Local Fund Board of the district, in a monthly summary, for such notice as they may seem to indicate.

Mode of registering births and deaths.

The machinery of birth and death registration differs in town and country. In the districts generally it is simple and inexpensive, but not on the other hand as accurate as could be wished. The Curnam or Village Accountant records the births and deaths which occur in his village, obtaining his information in the former case from the village dhoby or washerman, and in the latter case from the village taliary or watchman. A monthly abstract of his records, which in the case of deaths includes particulars as to age and cause of death, is forwarded to the Collector through the taluk authorities. The returns are tabulated in the Collector's office, and transmitted by him to the Sanitary Commissioner. It is the duty of the Revenue Inspectors, a class of subordinate Revenue officials, to supervise the registration as far as

they have opportunities for doing so. There is no law compelling persons to report births or deaths to the village officers. In municipal towns special Registrars are appointed, sometimes for purposes of registration only, and sometimes for this in conjunction with other sanitary duties. The law makes compulsory the registration of births and deaths occurring within municipal limits, relatives being bound to report within 20 days. Payment of Registrars by results has in some cases been attempted, but the plan has been abandoned. It is believed that under ordinary circumstances birth registration in this Presidency may be regarded as obviously defective when the registered rate falls below 2·5 per cent. of population. The English birth-rate is understood to be 3·51, and the French birth-rate 2·63 per cent.; the corresponding death-rates being 2·25 and 2·36 respectively.

Mode of ascertaining public health.

The machinery for birth and death registration, involving as it does registry of the ages at death and presumed causes of death, constitutes probably at present the best means of testing the public health, and the remarks made in the annual administration report regarding the public health are given under the section headed Sanitary, and are taken from the report of the Sanitary Commissioner. Details regarding pathology will however also be found in the annual administration report under the section headed Medical Relief, the remarks there being taken from the report of the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department, and being the results of observations taken at the several hospitals. The organization of a separate Health Department has been at various times contemplated, but financial difficulties have prevented the plan from being carried out.

Distribution of practical sanitation.

Practical sanitation is undertaken chiefly by Local Fund Boards and by Municipalities. Municipal sanitation is not checked in detail by Government. Sanitary expenditure by Local Fund Boards is divided technically into three classes: (*a*) improvement of water-supply, (*b*) enlargement or improvement of village sites, and (*c*) conservancy of towns and villages. The main source of income of Local Fund Boards is the land-cess, two-thirds of which is necessarily devoted to Communications. The remaining third is available for other objects, and, though there are some other minor sources of income, may be taken roughly as the income available for miscellaneous expenditure. This third is divided amongst four claimants, Education, Medicine (Hospitals and Dispensaries), Convenience, and Hygiene (the last including Vaccination). The ratio of distribution is decided in each case on its merits. The sanitation of jails and in the two armies engages the separate attention of Government.

EMIGRATION.

Nature of South Indian emigration.

The population of Southern India is drained to some extent by emigration of the laboring classes to neighboring countries, and especially to Burmah and Ceylon. British Burmah contains a large area of uncultivated land, and there is a migration of population from the Telugu districts. A number of women emigrate from the northern districts to Burmah for the purpose of prostitution in the Burmese sea ports. They usually return to their own country after a few years of absence, or when they have saved money. A temple was recently built at Coringa by a woman of this class at a cost of Rupees 30,000, or £3,000. The emigration to Ceylon is on a larger scale, the greater part of the labor required on the coffee estates in Ceylon being furnished from Southern India. At certain seasons of the year, when labor is in demand, the laboring classes of the southern districts travel across to Ceylon; and, when they have saved a little money, return again to their native villages. The cooly traffic between the south ports and Ceylon is constant and mutually advantageous to the people of India and to Ceylon. The high wages offered by the planters enable the people to save, and ultimately to take the position of small farmers in their own villages, while the planters in Ceylon can always obtain as much labor as they want by offering sufficient inducements. The Ceylon Government undertakes to see that the coolies are properly housed, fed, and provided with medical attendance, and the migration to and from the coffee districts is entirely voluntary. About 70,660 persons go over to Ceylon every year from the southern districts, and of these about 54,000 return to India. The others settle more or less permanently in the island. The following table shows the migration of the Madras population to and from Ceylon for ten years prior to the date of the last census:—

—	To Ceylon.	From Ceylon.
1862	68,896	41,915
1863	70,718	61,765
1864	81,800	62,276
1865	89,597	64,539
1866	88,528	49,229
1867	42,769	45,996
1868	51,033	37,061
1869	58,689	54,346
1870	65,114	55,082
1871	89,529	68,310
Total ...	706,673	540,519
Mean of 10 years ...	706,673	54,051·9

This table shows that the great check to coffee speculation in 1867 immediately affected the labor market. In that one year more coolies returned from the island than went over. But the great industry of

Ceylon, under the stimulus of high prices, has been reviving, and in 1871 the cooly migration was as great as in the years 1864 to 1866, when much capital was expended in opening out new estates. In the ten years ending with 1871 the southern districts of India lost 166,154 persons by migration to Ceylon. The greater part of the survivors are probably doing better for themselves in the land of their adoption than they could hope to do in their native land. They are free to return whenever they please, and that they do not come back must be taken as an indication that they are content to remain. Emigration goes on also to the more distant countries of Mauritius, Natal, Bourbon, and the West Indies under regulations defined by law; but the numbers proceeding to those places are comparatively few. The following abstract shows the number of emigrants and of returned emigrants to and from Mauritius, Bourbon, and West Indies for the ten years ending 1871 :—

—	From Madras Ports.	Returned Emigrants.
1862	6,804	542
1863	5,118	614
1864	5,229	...
1865	7,133	1,261
1866	7,317	1,192
1867	12,339	851
1868	1,426	768
1869	3,064	1,696
1870	3,816	667
1871	8,308	1,293
Total ...	55,574	8,884
Mean of 10 years ...	5,557·4	888·4

Nature of Government protection.

The legal provisions regarding emigration are the same throughout India. The Government take no account of emigration other than that to Ceylon; to Burmah; to the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, the Fiji Isles, and Seychelles; to the French Colonies of Réunion, Martinique, Guadaloupe and its dependencies and Guiana; and to the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Ceylon emigration is regulated, as far as the Ceylon Government is concerned, by the Ceylon Ordinance No. XI of 1865; on the part of the Madras Government, the number of emigrants is checked by the Collectors of the southern districts. This movement of labor, though practically emigration, inasmuch as many of those who go are lost to the country, and though representing the greater number of so-called emigrants, going from the whole Presidency, is not of a kind to require much interference on the part of the local Government, and is not provided for by any legislative enactment. Emigration to British Burmah is regulated by Act III of 1876. At present Cocanada is the only port in the Presidency whence emigration under that Act is allowed. The District

Magistrate of Godavari acts there as Protector. Emigration to the Straits Settlement is regulated by Act No. V of 1877. At present Negapatam is the only port whence emigration for the Straits is allowed. The Joint Magistrate at Negapatam, and, during his absence from head-quarters, the Master Attendant of the port, acts as Protector. Emigration for the British Colonies named above is provided for under Act VII of 1871. In this case each Colonial Government concerned nominates its agent and recruiters for the Presidency, and establishes its depôt for the reception of emigrants at the town of Madras; the Protector of Emigrants, assisted by a Medical Inspector, represents the local Government. The emigrant enters into an engagement with the recruiter in one or other of the districts for service in the colonies under certain conditions as to time of service, pay, rations, hours and days of work in the colony, and with free passage both to and from the colony. The Mauritius, from which emigrants are not allowed free return passages, is an exception to the arrangement last made. The time of service is usually five years. In the case of the Mauritius the pay ranges from 5 to 7½ rupees per mensem, according to service in the colony; in other colonies the pay is usually 5 rupees. These rates apply only to workmen in the plantations; artizans and skilled workmen are paid according to qualifications. Women emigrating are allowed pay ranging from 2 rupees to 4 rupees. The emigrants have generally to work six days in the week, and nine hours in the day. Emigrants when licensed by the recruiter are registered in the mofussil by Magistrates, and at the Presidency Town by the Protector. The recruit is brought before the Magistrate or Protector as the case may be, and if he is found to understand the terms of the engagement, and to be willing to emigrate, he is registered and sent to the depôt belonging to the colony concerned, where he remains under the care and responsibility of the Colonial Agent and recruiter respectively till he embarks. Previous to embarkation the vessel intended to carry emigrants is surveyed by competent Marine officers and certified to be fit to carry emigrants, and the Protector personally superintends embarkation. The stock of provisions and medicines, and the accommodation to be afforded, is prescribed by standing orders. The Protector is empowered to stop the embarkation of such emigrants as seem to him unfit to undertake the voyage. When emigrants return the Protector inquires into the treatment experienced by them in the colony and during the voyage back, and a report is made to Government. Anything worthy of notice and requiring remedy is communicated to the Colonial Government concerned. The return emigrants, or immigrants as they are sometimes called, can only land at the port of Madras, and their numbers are there registered. The only British colonies at present represented in the Presidency are the Mauritius

and Natal. For the French colonies mentioned above, in which case a special convention secures to the French Governments similar advantages to those enjoyed by British colonies, the procedure is very much the same as for the British colonies. There are however two ports of embarkation and two depôts, one at Pondicherry, and the other at Karikal. The interests of the local Government are represented at Madras, where emigrants are only registered but whence they do not embark, by the Protector of Emigrants, and at the two French ports by two special officers styled British Consular Agents. Act VII of 1871 applies to French colonies. For the Danish colony mentioned above no provision is made. Act VII of 1871 applies to this colony.

MEDICAL RELIEF.

Nature of relief.

Operations under this title consist of the operations undertaken by Government, or by Local Boards in towns and rural circles acting under the orders of Government, for the medical relief of the population. This is done in the case of the Army by Military Hospitals attended by officers of the two Medical Departments, and in the case of the general public by a system of civil hospitals, dispensaries, and asylums. Officers of Government are medically attended by officers of the Indian Medical Department. It has already been pointed out that the general information and statistics regarding public health given in the yearly administration report of the Government are mainly those compiled by the Sanitary Commissioner from the mortality returns. Under the present head is given in that report merely the special information derived from the observation of patients treated in civil hospitals, dispensaries, and asylums.

British Medical Service.

The British Medical Service is the portion of the Army Medical Department serving in the command with European troops. The establishment sanctioned for the Madras Presidency and Burmah includes 1 Surgeon-General, 3 Deputy Surgeons-General, 26 Surgeons-Major, and 48 Surgeons, making in all a total of 78. Each officer comes to India on a tour of foreign service, returning to England on its conclusion. The ordinary period of this tour is five years, but in special cases it may be prolonged beyond that limit. The routine duties of the department are exclusively in connection with British troops. The Surgeon-General is in communication with Government through the Military Secretary, with the Commander-in-Chief through the Adjutant-General and Quartermaster-General, and War Office in London through the Director-General of the Department. He conducts

the duties of his office at the seat of Government. The Deputy Surgeons-General are in charge of circles or divisions, and are responsible both to the General Officer in command of their particular district and to the Surgeon-General. These officers perform yearly inspections of barracks and hospitals occupied by British troops. The Surgeons-Major and Surgeons are in professional charge of officers and soldiers and their families, and are available during their tour of duty in this Presidency to be sent wherever British troops are stationed.

Indian Medical Service.

To the Indian Medical Department are allotted medical duties connected with the Native Army and the civil administration of the country; its members are also occasionally employed by Government on scientific and other extra-professional duties. The department consists of Commissioned and Subordinate grades, and its senior officers are specially engaged for service in India and other Eastern Dependencies. The Subordinate Medical Establishment consists of two classes, viz., the Apothecary or Warrant and the Hospital Assistant class. In addition to the ordinary and Military Medical Subordinates there are now employed and under training two classes of Medical Subordinates intended for service under Government in Provincial Hospitals and in the Hospitals of Municipalities and of Local Fund Boards. These officials are to be designated respectively Civil Apothecaries and Civil Hospital Assistants, and to be purely civil officers not amenable to military discipline or ordinarily available for military duty. The Surgeon-General at the head of the department is entrusted with the control and superintendence of Military Hospitals and Medical Establishments connected with Native troops; and of Lock Hospitals, Medical Store Depôts, Civil Hospitals and Dispensaries, and Medical Establishments attached to the Judicial, Revenue, Police, and other Civil Departments. In matters connected with the Native Army this officer is subordinate to the Commander-in-Chief. There are six Deputy Surgeons-General, to each of whom is assigned a circle of superintendence.

Civil Medical Relief.

The agencies for the relief of the sick poor in this Presidency are annually increasing under the operation of the Towns Improvement and Local Fund Acts. According to the latest information there were 170 hospitals and dispensaries in operation throughout the Presidency, the Medical staff of which consisted of 39 Commissioned Officers, 3 Honorary Surgeons, 7 Assistant Surgeons, 40 Officers of the Warrant grade, 67 Hospital Assistants, and 9 Civil Apothecaries and 22 Civil Hospital Assistants, making a total of 187 Medical Agents. These institutions are open to all classes of the community applying for relief. Of the 170 institutions, 128 are hospitals having wards for in-patients, and 42 may be classed as dispensaries, inasmuch as they at present only afford relief to out-patients. Since the passing of the Towns Improvement and Local Fund Acts in 1871, the cost of maintaining hospitals and

dispensaries has, under sanction of the law, been thrown on Municipalities and Local Fund Boards, and at the present moment the entire cost of all up-country civil hospitals and dispensaries is met by those Boards, with the exception of the pay of the Medical Officers when of the Commissioned grade or of the grade of Honorary Surgeon. In the case of a Native Surgeon, Warrant Officer, or Hospital Assistant holding charge of a civil hospital along with police or jail duties, one-fourth of his pay becomes a provincial charge in virtue of the latter duties. In most cases the local hospital is a joint charge on the adjoining Local Fund Circles and the Municipality in which it is situated, the expenses being divided between them. At the Presidency town the General Hospital, on account of its being a clinical school for the College students, and four other special hospitals are entirely supported by Government. The cost of the Civil Lock Hospital in Madras is also partly borne by Government, but the maintenance of the other hospitals is purely a municipal charge. At mofussil stations Government support two Lunatic Asylums and a Lazaretto, together with Civil Dispensaries at the three large military stations of Secunderabad, Kamptee, and St. Thomas' Mount. The cost of the Civil Hospitals on the Nilgiris is also partly met from provincial funds. The cardinal principle, however, of the existing system of medical relief for the masses in this Presidency is its maintenance by local taxation, consequently its extension depends chiefly on the action of the rate-payers. So far the new arrangement has proved no obstacle to the extension of medical relief, but would appear on the contrary to have given it a fresh impetus; dispensaries have multiplied rapidly under local Boards, and the increase in their number would have been still greater had the Medical Department been in a position to provide the requisite number of medical men to take charge of the new institutions. The provision of medical men, and their education and training, were up to 1878 entirely undertaken by Government, but local Boards are now required to contribute to the maintenance of the Medical College. The Contagious Diseases Act, No. XIV of 1868, is administered by a Health Officer specially appointed.

VACCINATION.

Nature of Department.

The Department of Vaccination consists of an Inspector, First and Second Class Deputy Inspectors, First and Second Class Vaccinators, and Probationers, the last being more properly men studying the Practice of Vaccination for admission into the department. The general supervision of the department devolves on the Inspector,

who is a Commissioned Medical Officer. The Inspector visits all parts of the Presidency, and subordinate supervision is maintained by the Deputy Inspectors, of whom there are one or more in each district, and who are all in direct subordination to the Inspector. The actual work of vaccination is done by the Vaccinators, whose pay varies according to grading and local arrangements. The Vaccinators themselves are under the orders of Municipalities or the Local Boards. As a general rule each works in his own Municipal town or taluk, but in some cases the taluk has been divided into divisions. With a few exceptions the whole cost of the Department of Vaccination is borne by Local Fund Boards and Municipalities. Government, however, contributes the pay and allowances of the Inspector and entertains, at its own expense, two or three Cantonment Vaccinators. Down to the beginning of 1875-76 vaccination was treated as a branch of the Medical Department, and the principal officer was styled Superintendent-General; it is now a branch of the Sanitary Department, and the officer just named is styled Inspector of Vaccination and Deputy Sanitary Commissioner, and conducts his duties immediately under the direction of the Sanitary Commissioner. The Sanitary Commissioner also inspects the vaccine arrangements of towns and districts during his periodical tours. The following list shows the different classes of Vaccinators at work, and the relative results attained by each as shown by the figures of a recent year :—

	Total Operations.
Vaccine Circles and Districts	411,021
Private Vaccinators	160
Medical Subordinates	21,386
Municipalities	83,106
Zemindaries	5,690
Civil Dispensaries	397
Railway Apothecaries	...
Total ...	521,760

CHEMICAL EXAMINER.

Duties.

The duties of the Chemical Examiner to Government are chiefly to examine and report upon substances submitted to him for investigation by Magisterial and Police Officers in cases where poisoning is suspected, and to examine weapons and other articles for blood-stains. He is also required to analyse potable waters used by troops and public establishments; and to examine Government stores of all kinds, soils, limestones, salts, liquors, and other substances submitted by the various departments of the service.

SECTION VII.

INSTRUCTION.

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

Historical retrospect —1826 to 1855.

In 1826 Sir Thomas Munro appointed a Board of Public Instruction to organize a system of public instruction with authority to establish two principal schools in each collectorate and an inferior school in each taluk. Fourteen collectorate schools and eighty-one taluk schools were accordingly set on foot, together with a central school at the Presidency; but the scheme proved a failure, and all the schools established in the provinces were abolished. In 1836 the Board of Public Instruction was superseded by a new Board styled the "Committee for Native Education," who were directed to organize a Normal school for training teachers for the eventual establishment of English schools in different parts of the country. This body was in its turn replaced by the University Board which was constituted by Lord Elphinstone for the government of an institution to be styled the Madras University, and to consist of a high school and college upon the plan followed by the Scottish Universities. The high school was opened in April 1841, but it was not until January 1853 that the standard was considered by Government sufficiently advanced to justify the establishment of a College Department. In 1853 and 1854 Provincial schools were opened at Cuddalore, Rajahmundry, Combaconum, Calicut, and Bellary. The educational operations of the Madras Presidency were at this period on a very small scale compared with those of the other Governments. The entire expenditure in 1852-53 amounted to only Rupees 45,556-13-4. In the provinces scarcely any thing had been done. In addition to the Provincial schools just mentioned, there was nothing but a small industrial school at Negapatam, a few elementary schools for the instruction of the Khonds of Gumsur and Chinna Kimedy, some Vernacular schools in the delta taluks of the Godavari District, two Vernacular schools in South Arcot, and a small school at Pulicat originally founded by the

Dutch Government. A monthly grant of Rupees 350, known as the Schwartz grant and dating from the commencement of the present century, had been given to certain Protestant schools in Tanjore and Ramnad. Certain Yeomiahs granted by the former Mahomedan Government for the instruction of Mahomedan children in the Koran had been continued in Nellore and North Arcot, and just at the close of this period a grant of Rupees 5,000 was given to the Madras Training Institution, which was established in 1853 to train male and female teachers for employment in Christian schools.

—Establishment of present Government Department.

In March 1855, Mr. Alexander Arbuthnot, the Secretary of the University Board, was appointed Director of Public Instruction, and during the course of the year sanction was given for the appointment of four Inspectors of Schools, twenty Assistant Inspectors, afterwards styled Zillah Visitors and now known as Deputy Inspectors, and sixty Sub-Assistant Inspectors called Taluk Visitors. The Madras University was remodelled and received the name of the Presidency College. A Law Class was established as a branch of this institution, and provision was made for a Normal school for training teachers, four Provincial and eight Zillah schools, a hundred Taluk schools, a depôt or school-books, Educational Presses, and Rupees 12,000 for scholarships. To carry out these measures occupied several years, and some changes were made from time to time in the details of the plan originally sketched out. Thus the full number of taluk schools was never established, and schools of a somewhat higher grade known as Anglo-Vernacular schools took the place of some of the taluk schools. The Madras Normal school was supplemented by Normal schools of a more elementary type in the provinces. A special school for Mahomedans known as the Madrasa-i-Azam was remodelled in 1859. The Provincial school of Combaconum grew into a College and was formally recognized as such in 1867. The Madras Medical School established in 1835 was constituted a College in 1851 and transferred to the Educational Department in June 1855. The School of Ordnance Artificers, established privately in 1840, was in 1855 constituted a Government institution. At about the same time a School of Arts opened privately in 1850, and a School of Industry similarly established in 1851, became Government institutions and were amalgamated under the designation of the School of Industrial Arts. The Survey School originally attached to the Board of Revenue and afterwards to the Chief Engineer's Office was constituted the Civil Engineering College in 1858.

—Private Schools.

Although Government had up to 1855 done but little, educational operations had been carried on in different parts of the Presidency by private societies and individuals, and in some districts on a very extensive scale. In these operations the various Missionary Societies

had taken a leading part. The two chief societies of the Church of England, the Church Missionary Society, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, had established a considerable number of Village Boarding schools and Day schools in the Southern Districts, but principally in Tinnevelly. The Scotch Free Church Mission had large schools in Madras, at two of the principal towns in the neighbouring district of Chingleput, and at Nellore. The efforts of this Mission were then as now mainly devoted to education. The Mission connected with the Established Church of Scotland, the London Mission, and the Wesleyan Mission had also large schools in Madras. In Vizagapatam and Masulipatam schools had been established by the London Mission and by the Church Missionary Society, and on the Western Coast a similar institution was in operation at Mangalore founded by the German Mission. Exclusive of the indigenous village schools the number of schools supported otherwise than by Missionary Societies was comparatively small. The chief of these was Pachiappah's Institution, a large school in Madras established from the proceeds of a bequest left for charitable purposes by Pachiappah Mudelliar and in connection with which smaller schools had been established at Conjeveram and Chellambrum. At Nursapore and Coimbatore schools had been established partly supported by native subscriptions, but their establishment was mainly due to the influence and aid of European officials.

—Grants-in-aid to Private Schools

The first Government Grant-in-aid Rules, that is to say rules for regulating State aid given to private schools, were published in 1855, simultaneously with the arrangements above mentioned for the establishment of a purely Government Department. The rules were couched in very general terms, but embodied some important principles. They provided that the grants were to be for specific purposes, mostly for teachers' salaries, and that they were not to exceed in amount the sum contributed on the part of the school itself, that is to say from fees, endowments, &c. Except in the case of Normal and Female schools they were to be confined to schools in which school fees were levied. Every aided school was to be under Government inspection, and no teacher was to receive a grant until his qualifications had been reported on by a Government Inspector. Experience showed that more definite rules were needed, and in 1858 a new code appeared. It was to a large extent an adaptation of the old English Code. Its main feature was an elaborate system of Teachers' certificates in connection with the salary grants. Nine standards of qualification were laid down for schoolmasters and five for schoolmistresses, and for each standard there was a departmental examination. To each class of certificate a specific grant was attached, which represented one-third of the teacher's salary. These rules were superseded by a third code which

came out in 1865, and which with some modifications is in force still. In this code the number of grades for schoolmasters was reduced to five, and for schoolmistresses to three. The maximum grants claimable under these rules were made much higher than they had been before, representing one-half instead of one-third of the salaries of teachers. The University B.A., F.A., and Matriculation Examinations were substituted for the departmental examinations for the three higher grades, the departmental examination in these grades being confined to a paper in method and teaching a class in the presence of an Inspector. Grants again were made claimable under the code for various purposes besides salaries, such as the erection and repair of buildings and the purchase of furniture, school apparatus, and books. Grants could also be claimed as an alternative in elementary schools on the payment for results system, but the standards for native schools were pitched so high that this portion of the code remained at first inoperative. A new set of Results Rules came out in 1868, and another set, that now in force again in April 1st, 1878. The Madras Results Rules are avowedly framed for elementary schools and are of a more elementary character even than the results rules in force in Great Britain, there being only four instead of six standards. In some respects they are well adapted to the educational requirements of this Presidency. Large numbers of indigenous as well as mission schools in every district have been improved on the results system, and it has almost entirely superseded the salary grant system in elementary schools of all classes. Schools aided on the results grant system generally receive no aid except a result grant once a year. A still further modification of the original grant-in-aid system has of late been allowed to grow up in the form of what is known as the "combined" system, consisting of part fixed salaries and part results grants under the rules. The arrangements for carrying out this system are at present treated as special cases in each instance, but in view to the utility and popularity of the plan it is in contemplation to draw up fixed rules. The three main systems of aid are then the salary grant system, the results grant system, and the combined system. The pure results grant system is considered to be chiefly adapted for the promotion of education in backward parts of the country and among the ruder classes, where the advantages of a less mercenary and purer method of State aid would meet with no appreciation. The salary grant system is regarded as the most suitable where public opinion is active and where confidence placed in teachers will meet with response. The combined system occupies in principle a ground intermediate between the other two, and may probably be relied upon for all intermediate sets of circumstances. The description of the different forms of State aid given to private schools will not be complete without mentioning that in a few cases lump grants and

special grants are given by Government; these, however, are quite exceptional. In speaking of State aid in this paragraph it must be understood that the term includes the aid given by various Municipal and Local Fund Circle Boards, which are in fact quasi-Government institutions. The grant-in-aid rules were originally drawn up to regulate aid given by the Government itself, but the Boards just mentioned have been required to adopt the Government rules.

—Act VI of 1863.

After the grant-in-aid system of 1855 had been in force for some years, it became apparent that however useful it might be in improving higher and middle class schools, it had been doing up to that date very little for elementary education in consequence of the limited number of applications made from elementary schools. In 1863 the Madras Education Act was passed. The object of this measure, which was based on the Municipal Act XXVI of 1850, was to provide a proper machinery for the collection and management of a rate, by which certain village schools in the subdivision of the Godavari District were supported, and to furnish the inhabitants of towns and villages in other parts of the Presidency with the means of raising permanent funds for the establishment of new and the improvement of existing schools and of availing themselves of the grants-in-aid which Government were prepared to give. The Act provided that if the majority of the rate-payers in the Godavari District did not petition against the continuance of the schools within two months from a given date, the schools should be continued for five years, and that a similar procedure should be observed at the end of every recurring period of five years. In any district the inhabitants might petition for an order declaring the Act in force in any town or village, and the order was to be issued if, after inquiry, a sufficient majority of the inhabitants was found in favor of the application. When however the Act came to be worked, it was found to be ill-adapted to rural communities. The Godavari Commissioners were inexperienced ryots, who knew little or nothing about the management of schools. The collections fell in arrears and the teachers remained unpaid for long periods. In the other districts very few schools were established, and in many cases after the Act had been put in force with the apparent assent of the inhabitants, it was found necessary to close the schools or to abandon the attempt to establish them. At the end of seven years the Act had been brought into operation in only nine out of nineteen districts, and the total number of rate schools was only 104. In the Godavari District the number had dwindled down to fifty-nine, in the other districts it ranged from two to seventeen. Among these were two important schools of the higher class at Palghat and Saidapet. Except in the Godavari District, the other schools were almost entirely middle-class schools. Thus the experiment of extending an

interest in education by means of a voluntary rate met with little general success.

The only alternative was a compulsory cess. So far back as April 1859 the attention of the Government of India and of the several local Governments had been drawn by the present Earl of Derby, who was then Secretary of State, to the expediency of imposing a compulsory rate to defray the expenses of schools for the rural population. The measure did not at that time find favor at Madras, the Government, at the head of which Sir Charles Trevelyan, being opposed to any compulsory taxation for educational purposes. In May 1868 the Government of India pointed out that Act VI of 1863 had entirely failed in the main object for which it was passed, and suggested for consideration the introduction of an education cess on the model of the one which had proved so successful in Northern and Western India. The necessity for supplementing Imperial revenues by local taxation had long been felt in this Presidency, and various local Acts were already in operation under which the conservancy of the principal towns and the formation and maintenance of district roads had been provided for by local taxes. The embarrassed condition of the finances of India, which became known in the following year, although it was not, as was popularly supposed, the immediate cause of the enactment of the Towns' Improvement Act III of 1871, the Local Fund Act IV of 1871, and the Madras Municipal Act V of 1871, rendered it impossible to defer this class of legislation any longer, and those Acts were accordingly passed, providing among other things for the promotion of education in town and country. The provisions of the Acts and the nature of the taxation levied under them have been fully described under Section III. The description of education to which Local and Municipal Funds were applicable was purposely left undefined in the Acts. Government have however since decided that these funds shall be mainly appropriated to the maintenance and improvement of "elementary" education. The exceptions which have been allowed are the rate schools of the middle class established under the Madras Education Act, institutions for medical and technical training, and certain schools which have been dealt with as exceptional cases. It was originally intended that one-fourth of the cost of all Government Normal schools should be debited to Local and Municipal Funds, but it was found that some of these schools supplied few or no teachers to elementary schools, and it was considered inequitable to throw any portion of their cost on Local or Municipal Funds. This part of the scheme was therefore carried out only with reference to a few Normal schools, and circumstances occurred which rendered it of very short duration even in this limited form. In the years 1871-72 and 1872-73 three hundred and twenty-three Local Fund schools had

Acts of 1871.

come into existence, and the house-tax under the Local Funds Act had been imposed in a corresponding number of villages or groups of villages. But the imposition of this tax encountered in several instances such extreme hostility, that Government determined that it should proceed no further. As the effect of this order was to leave charges for sanctioned "Union" schools unprovided for to an aggregate amount of Rupees 1,10,000, a special grant was made from Provincial Funds to the circles concerned to supply such deficiency as could not be met from the unallotted balance of the General Fund of each circle. Since 1873-74 Local Fund Circle education has been developed without the aid of a house-tax. It was calculated at the end of 1873-74 that, including the one-third land-cess, the General Local Fund might be estimated at about 14¼ lakhs, of which 5¾ lakhs were allotted as an additional contribution to the Road Fund, and three quarters of a lakh was given as a contribution towards the pay of the Deputy Inspectors and the cost of Normal schools. From the commencement of 1874-75 it was resolved that no contributions should be made from the one-third land-cess to the Road Fund until the requirements of the other purposes to which the General Local Fund might by law be applicable had been fully met and that all charges on account of Deputy Inspectors and Normal schools should be resumed in toto as a provincial charge. The general effect of these measures was to place about eight lakhs and a half at the disposal of the Local Fund Boards for elementary education. In December 1874 the Local Fund Boards and Municipalities were further relieved of all charges connected with female education, and a few girls' schools which had been maintained or aided by them were constituted Government institutions.

—Recent progress.

During the last few years the progress has been satisfactory, whether in State schools, in local Board schools, or in private schools aided by the State and local Boards. There has been a great development of elementary education and female education. Colleges and high schools have also been increasing in numbers and efficiency. The Rajahmundry College, the Madras Christian College, and St. Joseph's College, Negapatam, are now first-grade colleges educating up to B.A. degree. The number of second-grade colleges, educating up to the F.A. standard, is annually increasing, and there are now only six districts unprovided with a college. The rates of school fees have been thrice raised, and many of the high schools are beginning to pay half and even a larger proportion of their cost by means of school fees. Middle-class education has improved in the Government schools, but is on the whole in a less satisfactory state in aided schools. The high schools are stimulated and improved by the University examinations. The primary schools come under the

influence of the examinations for results grants. Middle-class schools suffer from the absence of a middle-class examination. The institution of such an examination has been recently ordered by the Government of India, and the details of the scheme are now under consideration.

Controlling agency.

The Department of Public Instruction is administered by an officer styled the Director of Public Instruction, aided by six Inspectors of Schools, under whom are two distinct grades of Subordinate Inspectors called Deputy Inspectors and Inspecting Schoolmasters. The Inspectors travel in their divisions for eight months of the year, and examine each year every high and middle school and a certain number of the elementary schools situated in them. The examination of aided schools is more cursory and less complete than that of Government schools. The Inspector has the general charge of all Government schools in his division and aids the Presidents of Local Fund Boards and Municipalities with his advice in the management of Local Fund and Municipal schools. Forty Deputy Inspectors have up to date been sanctioned, but only thirty-eight have been actually appointed. Besides aiding the Inspectors in their examinations of high and middle schools these officers have the immediate supervision of Government Middle schools, and in some districts of a few Government girls' schools and Mahomedan schools. They are also largely employed in superintending Municipal and Local Fund schools, and nearly all the work of examining schools for results grants is done by them. As members of Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, they have to advise and vote on local educational questions, and it is their duty to report and remark on any shortcomings in the Educational budgets of their circles. There are at present 159 Inspecting Schoolmasters. Their duty *mainly* consists in travelling about slowly from village to village and teaching the masters of indigenous schools how to prepare their pupils for examinations under the rules for results grants. They show the masters how a school should be organized by dividing the pupils into classes, by the adoption of time-tables, by the introduction of printed books and maps, and by keeping registers of attendance. They do not conduct examinations for results grants. Most of the Inspecting Schoolmasters are paid entirely from Local Funds, but fourteen are at the present date paid by Municipalities. In the hill tracts of Ganjam there is an officer of nearly the same standing as an Inspecting Schoolmaster, who is styled the Superintendent of Hill Schools, but he is under the orders of the Special Assistant Agent, who has the general management of the Hill schools. In some districts the Inspecting Schoolmasters visit Local Fund schools.

Colleges and schools viewed with regard to upkeep.

Omitting for the moment the Madras University, such institutions as deal with special or professional instruction, and certain private institutions which although under inspection do not require aid from public funds, the remainder of the institutions in connection with the Educa-

tional Department may be divided, according to the mode in which they are supported, into three classes as follows :—(*a*) Public institutions under the direct management and control of the Educational Department and maintained from Provincial Funds, supplemented in a few cases by endowments, and in most cases by fees, which are paid into the treasury and credited either to Provincial Funds or the School Fee Fund; these are called Government institutions: (*b*) Public institutions under the direct management of Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, ("Local Fund Schools" and "Municipal Schools") or of committees acting under the control of Government, and mainly supported from Public Funds, Local, Municipal, or Provincial, but in which the fees if any are credited to the local body and not to Government: (*c*) Private institutions receiving from Government or local Boards (i) salary grants, (ii) results grants, (iii) lump grants, or (iv) aid on the combined system, supplemented in most cases by fees from parents, and in some cases by private subscriptions and endowments; these are called "aided schools."

—Government institutions.

The Government institutions entered as class (*a*) comprise institutions of every educational standard. In the first place come three first-grade colleges at the Presidency, Combaconum, and Rajahmundry, and six second-grade colleges at Mangalore, Calicut, Bellary, Berhampore, Cuddalore, and Salem. There are nine High schools appertaining to these colleges, and the High school which constitutes a part of the Madras Practising school. There are also first-grade High schools at Kurnool, Cuddapah, Chittoor, Saidapet, Madura, Palghat, and Tellicherry, and second-grade High schools at Chicacole, Cannanore, Trivadi, and Trivalur. All the Colleges and High schools abovementioned have Middle schools, more or less complete, attached to them, and in addition there are first-grade Middle schools at Guntoor, Wallajahpett, Arni, Tripatoor, and Srirungam, second-grade Middle schools at Russellcondah, Bimlipatam, Ankapally, Ongole, Villapuram, Arcot, Dharmapuri, Namkal, Udamalapetai, Erode, Badagara, and Chowghaut, and third-grade Middle schools at Tekkale, Itchapur, Palkonda, Kasimkota, Gunapur, Viravaseram, Amlapur, Ellamanchili, Adoni, Maddenpally, Poonamalee, Trinomalai, Punruti, Tirukovellur, Virdachellam, Porto Novo, Kullakurchi, Tripatty, Palmanair, Karvetnugger, Oossoor, Krisnagiri, Puttukotai, Tiruvadamardur, Dindigul, Periyakulam, Pollachi, Karur, Dharapuram, Quilandy, Udapi, Karkala, and Kassergode. There are also Middle schools forming part of the Practising schools attached to the Normal schools of Mangalore and Calicut, but these will shortly be abolished. A few schools or departments of schools have been specially established for the Mahomedan community. Of these the most important is the Madrasa-i-Azam, a first-grade Middle school at the Presidency. The

Anglo-Vernacular School, Mylapore, is a second-grade Middle school for Mahomedans. Elementary schools for Mahomedans were opened a few years ago at Vellore, Ellore, Masulipatam, Trichinopoly, Nagore, Arcot, Adoni, Rajahmundry, Cuddapah, and Kurnool, but the five first are already developing into Middle schools. At Cuddapah and Kurnool it has been found expedient to amalgamate the Mahomedan school with the other Government school, of which it now forms a department, and at Chittoor a Mahomedan department has been recently added to the Government school. In all these Mahomedan schools instruction is imparted through the medium of Hindustani except at Nagore, where Tamil is the Vernacular of the Lubbay boys, by whom the school is attended. There are sixteen primary schools for Ooriyas and Khonds in the Hill Tracts of Gumsur and Pedda and Chinna Kimedy, four primary schools for boys in the Rekapally and Bhadrachellum Taluks, transferred to the Godaveri District from the Central Provinces, and a small Primary school for the children of European pensioners at Tripassore. All the Government High and Middle schools, with the exception of the High School at Madura, have a primary department attached to them. The Berhampore High school has both a middle and a primary department for Ooriyas.

—Quasi-Government institutions.

With regard to class (*b*) there are forty middle-class Local Fund schools and six middle-class Municipal schools. With one or two exceptions English is taught in all these schools. Most of these correspond with the schools hitherto known as Anglo-Vernacular and Taluk schools, but a few are purely Vernacular schools. According to the returns for 1877-78 there are 774 Primary Local Fund schools and 77 Primary Municipal schools. It is optional with the Local Fund Boards to allow English to be taught or not, but most of the schools are Vernacular schools, and there are few in which the highest class rises above the third results standard. Girls are not excluded from these schools, but the number in attendance is insignificant. Theoretically these schools are managed by the Local Fund Boards with the aid of the Inspector of the Division; in practice the tendency of the system is to throw all administrative details into the hands of the Deputy Inspectors. A few of the Municipal schools are schools for special classes, such as Mahomedans, East Indians, Silk-weavers, &c., but the majority of them are for all classes, and in large towns they act as feeders to the more advanced schools, and do some of the work which used to be formerly done in the primary departments of those schools. The attendance in some of these schools is tolerably large, ranging between one and two hundred, and a few of the best schools are beginning to realize a fair income from school fees. It is a matter for regret that so few Municipal schools have been as yet established, the Boards preferring to utilize the results system.

In the town of Madras this is exclusively the case. English is taught in a good many of the Municipal schools, which thus act as feeders to more advanced schools. The Lawrence Asylum at Ootacamund is the only institution answering to the description of a quasi-Government institution worked by a committee and other than a local Board school.

—Aided institutions.

With regard to class (*c*) i, salary grants are given from Provincial Funds to 10 colleges, 53 High schools and 129 Middle schools, and also to the Primary schools which form departments of these colleges and schools. Salary grants are rarely given to any other primary schools than those just mentioned, but if given they are paid from Local or Municipal Funds. With regard to class (*c*) ii, results grants earned by boys under the fourth standard and by girls under all the standards are paid from Provincial Funds and under the three lower standards from Local or Municipal Funds; except in the town of Madras where the results grants of poor schools under all four standards are paid by the Municipality, and the results grants of other schools fall entirely on Provincial Funds. With regard to class (*c*) iii, certain rate schools originally established under the Madras Education Act, and afterwards transferred to Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, and certain Middle schools which had been aided on the salary grant system previous to their transfer to the Local Fund Boards, receive lump grants from Provincial Funds. Since the abolition of the house-tax, lump grants have also been given not only to individual schools, but also to certain Local Fund Circles. These grants are not in any way regulated by the ordinary rules. With regard to class (*c*) iv, certain aided schools are worked by local Boards on the so-called combined system. This was originally applied to the Local Fund Middle schools of Malabar. According to this plan a proportion of each teacher's fixed salary was taken and made to depend on the result of the annual examination of the school. His regular salary was reduced, but if he exerted himself, he might eventually get something more than he would have otherwise drawn. In May 1873 this scheme in a somewhat different form was applied to the Local Fund Primary schools of the same district. The indigenous teachers were in this case to be trained men, and to receive a monthly stipend of Rupees 4 with full results grants in addition to such school fees as they could collect. In July 1874 a somewhat similar scheme was sanctioned for the Middle and Primary schools of South Canara, but under this arrangement the indigenous Schoolmasters were to receive Rupees 6 instead of Rupees 4 a month. Various other schemes on the combined system, differing not only in their details, but in their fundamental principles, have been since sanctioned or proposed for different parts of the Presidency. In some districts full

results grants are given in addition to salaries of varying amounts; in others only half results grants are given; in some the amount drawn as salary is deducted from the result grant, and is thus a mere advance to be eventually refunded. In some districts the fees belong to the teachers, in others to the Local Fund Boards. In some districts buildings and furniture are provided by the Boards, in others by the teachers. There is generally at present no condition that the teacher shall be trained, or even that he shall be certificated. In some districts schools on the combined system are regarded as Local Fund schools, in others as private schools. It has already been mentioned that all these details are under consideration, with a view to the framing of general rules. The following statement shows the growth of the Grant-in-aid system between 1868 and 1873. It does not include building grants or lump grants to certain circles which have not accounted for them in the returns:—

Years.	Payments made from Provincial Funds.	Payments made from Local and Municipal Funds under the Results system.	Total.	Years.	Payments made from Provincial Funds.	Payments made from Local and Municipal Funds under the Results System.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.		RS.	RS.	RS.
1868-69 ...	2,41,549	...	2,41,549	1873-74 ...	2,74,883	1,54,226	4,29,109
1869-70 ...	3,07,881	...	3,07,881	1874-75 ...	2,57,787	1,49,524	4,07,311
1870-71 ...	3,35,394	...	3,35,394	1875-76 ...	2,64,818	2,03,478	4,68,296
1871-72 ...	2,50,333	68,277	3,18,610	1876-77 ...	2,78,682	2,38,037	5,16,719
1872-73 ...	2,59,483	1,17,584	3,77,067	1877-78 ...	2,81,895	2,12,611	4,94,506

Colleges and schools viewed with reference to the instruction given.

The classification of educational institutions given in the remarks of the last four paragraphs has been a financial one, made with reference to the sources from which those institutions are supported. Turning now to technical details of teaching, the same institutions range themselves, according to the classes they contain, in the order shown in the following table:—

Arts College, First Grade.

10th or B.A. Class.
9th or Preparatory B.A. Class.

Arts College, Second Grade.

8th or F.A. Class.
7th or Preparatory F.A. Class.

High School.

6th or Matriculation Class.
5th or Preparatory Matriculation Class.

Middle School.

Upper Fourth Class.
Lower Fourth Class.
Third Class.

Upper Primary School.

Second Class.

Lower Primary School.

First Class.
Preparatory Class B.
Do. do. A.

The meaning of this table is that the classes shown under each head are peculiar to that head, and are not to be found in any head lower in the scale; and that a student proceeding through the whole educational course, (say during thirteen years, one for each class), would have to pass through all the classes and institutions there specified. No single institution has all the classes here enumerated. On the other hand it is not unusual for an institution to break itself up into portions representing different parts of the scheme, all being in the same building and under the same management; thus every college has a school attached to it, and most High or Middle schools have one or more primary classes working under the same roof. It should be added that the education given in arts colleges comes technically under the general head of University Education, that the education given in High and Middle schools comes similarly under the general head of Secondary Education, and that the education below this is called Primary Education.

—Tests of the different grades of instruction.

A first-grade arts college educates up to, that is to say prepares candidates for, the B.A. degree. So also a second-grade arts college educates up to the F.A. standard. And similarly no students are reckoned as belonging to an arts college at all, except such as have passed the University Matriculation examination. In high schools pupils are prepared for the Matriculation examination, and the high school course is one of two years. It is intended that an examination styled the Middle School Examination shall be the qualifying test for admission into a high school, but at present pupils are promoted after completing the middle school course. The middle school course extends over three years. Eventually an examination styled the upper primary school examination will be the qualifying test for admission into a middle school, but at present pupils are promoted after completing the upper primary school course. Primary schools consist of two divisions, the upper division being composed of pupils who are going through the upper primary school course and the lower division of pupils who are going through the lower primary school course. An examination styled the lower primary school examination is to be eventually the qualifying test for admission into an upper primary school. From the remarks just noted it will be observed that the only tests as yet actually in force to distinguish the different kinds of classes

or institutions are the University Examinations. On the other hand however it is to be remarked that private schools aided on the results system do not appear in the above schedule, and that these are classed as upper primary or lower primary according as they pass boys under the fourth standard results examination or only under the three lower standards; the results examinations therefore enter here as a test of educational grading.

Institutions, &c., other than those above considered. —Madras University.

The University of Madras was established on the 5th September 1857. It is constituted on the model of the University of London, and is purely an examining body, conferring degrees in Arts, Law, Medicine, and Civil Engineering. The Senate, which consists of a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor, and not less than thirty Fellows, is divided into the four Faculties just mentioned, and has power, subject to the approval of Government, to make bye-laws and regulations. The executive government of the University is vested in the Syndicate. This body appoints Examiners, regulates examinations, keeps the accounts, and carries on the correspondence of the University, with the aid of the Registrar, who is an officer appointed once in two years by the Senate. There is no limit of age for any of the University examinations. In the Faculty of Arts there are four examinations: the Matriculation, First Arts, B.A., and M.A. examinations. In the Faculty of Laws examinations are held for the degrees of Bachelor of Laws and Master of Laws. The Faculty of Medicine has the degrees of Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery, Bachelor of Medicine, and Master in Surgery. Candidates who have obtained the degrees of B.A. and M.B. and C.M. are permitted to proceed to the degree of M.D. without examination on producing a certificate of having been engaged two years in the practice of their profession. Previous to the institution of the University medical diplomas were conferred by the Medical College. The only examination in the Faculty of Civil Engineering is that for the degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering. The table given below shows the number of degrees conferred since the establishment of the University:—

B.A.	725
M.A.	16
B.L.	148
M.L.	4
L.M.S.	2
M.B. and C.M.	6
M.D.	3
B.C.E.	19

Fees ranging from Rupees 10 to Rupees 50 are levied for various examinations of the University, and these nearly suffice to cover the whole cost of the University, the net cost of the University in 1878-79 was only Rupees 677-2-2.

—Girls' schools and mixed ditto.

Female education was for many years almost entirely in the hands of the Missionary Societies. Of late years secular schools have been springing up in various parts of the Presidency, among which may be specially named several large schools established by the Maharajah of Vizianagram at Madras and in various parts of the Northern Circars. None of the Maharajah's schools receive any aid from the State, and some of them, although under inspection, furnish no returns. In December 1874, the Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, as has been already mentioned, were relieved of all salary and results grants which they had been previously paying on account of girls' schools and mixed schools of boys and girls, and a few girls' schools which had been entirely supported by them became Government institutions. This policy has not however been strictly adhered to, and in several instances lately Local Fund Boards and Municipalities have been permitted to open girls' schools. There are at present twelve Government girls' schools, five Municipal girls' schools, seven Local Fund girls' schools, and one Chattram girls' school. Most aided girls' schools are aided on the salary grant system, but results grants are in some cases given at rates 75 per cent. higher than those allowed for boys. Results grants are also given for needle-work at rates ranging from 1 rupee to Rupees 4. Nine girls' schools rank as High schools and twenty as Middle schools; the rest, including all the Government and quasi-Government schools, are primary.

—Professional colleges, &c.

The School of Agriculture has already been described under Section IV of this volume. The Madras Medical College, the Civil Engineering College, the Madras School of Industrial Arts, and the Lawrence Asylum will be separately noticed hereafter. The only other institution of a special nature is the Law Class of the Presidency College. The Law Professorship, after being in abeyance for three years, was revived in 1873. The majority of the students are persons who are following various avocations other than that of law.

—Normal schools.

Two different systems have been tried in the Normal schools of this Presidency. Originally the students were kept under instruction for long periods and were prepared for successive Certificate and University examinations. On admission they were required to execute an agreement binding themselves to serve as teachers in a Government or aided school for five years, and during the whole period of their training they were supported by a scholarship, which they were bound to refund in the event of their failing to fulfil the agreement into which they had entered. Under this system the attention of both masters and pupils was far too much directed to success in the examinations, and the training became a secondary consideration. The Educational Department being unpopular, the best men generally held aloof from the Normal schools, and even those who accepted the scholarships and

signed the agreements, often did so without any real intention of becoming teachers, their object being to pass the University examinations and to get employment in the Revenue or Judicial Departments. This system has been to some extent abandoned. No preparation for University examinations goes on now in any of the Normal schools. Students who have already passed such examinations are trained for nine or ten months, but are not required to enter into any engagements and are not guaranteed employment in the Educational Department. The Madras Government Normal school has been entirely on this footing for some years and trains graduates, First Arts men, and matriculates who receive scholarships of Rupees 15, 12½, and 10, respectively. This system although better than the one which it superseded, has not altogether worked well and some important changes are now under consideration. The other Government Normal schools in the mofussil are mainly intended to provide teachers for primary schools. The Government Female Normal school at Madras has hitherto prepared six East Indians or Europeans, eight Native Christians, and sixteen Hindus for the first, second, and third grades of the school mistresses' Teachers' Certificate examination, but in future East Indians and Europeans will not be admitted until they have passed the certificate examinations and then only for the purpose of being trained. The course extends over four years, during which the scholarships rise from Rupees 6 to Rupees 12. There are three aided Normal schools for males at Masulipatam, Dindigul, and Palamcottah, and two for females at Madras and Palamcottah.

—Teachers' certificates.

A Government examination for giving Teachers' certificates to male and female candidates in connection with the salary grant-in-aid rules already described is held in December of each year. Fees are levied at rates ranging from Rupees 3 to Rupees 5 and the examination is self-supporting. It has been determined to restrict the fifth or lowest grade examination to Normal students. Persons who are not Normal students are not admitted to this examination, but receive a fifth grade certificate if they pass the Uncovenanted Civil Service General Test Examination, Vernacular Branch, and satisfy the Inspecting Officer in giving a lesson to a class. Persons who have passed the University examinations obtain a certificate after passing in Method and teaching a class before an Inspector.

Financial system of Government department.

Fifteen superior officers of the department, including the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspectors of Schools, the Principals of the Presidency College and Provincial College of Combaconum, and the Professors of the Presidency College, are graded in classes, and their salaries rise by annual increments from the minimum to the maximum prescribed for their class. The Principal and Professors of the Medical College, who belong to the Indian Medical Department, and the

Principal of the Civil Engineering College, who is an officer of the Corps of Royal Engineers, are subject to special regulations. The principle of giving salaries rising by increments has been recently sanctioned in the case of the Head Masters of High schools, the Head Master of the Madrasa-i-Azam, and the masters of Middle schools and certain elementary Normal schools. Although the Medical College is under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, no charges connected with this institution fall on the Educational budget. The salaries of the Principal and major Professors, who are all officers holding various medical appointments, and the stipends of the Military Hospital Apprentices appertain to Imperial Services. The salaries of the minor Professors and all the other items belong to the medical branch of Provincial Services. - The Educational Building Fund was originally formed from the surplus balance of the Devasthanum Funds. Under the orders of the Court of Directors this amount was set apart for educational buildings and was subsequently considerably augmented by a transfer of the unexpended portion of the annual grant of Rupees 50,000 given for native education from 1828-29 to 1854-55. A 4 per cent. Treasury note was issued in the same year for Rupees 10,00,000, afterwards reduced in 1868 to Rupees 8,00,000. The interest upon this note, after meeting charges incurred in connection with educational buildings, was credited to the Educational Building Fund and continued to accumulate until July 1861, when the Secretary of State directed that no further additions should be made by the accumulation of interest, and that, whenever the building charges fell below the interest, the balance should be applied towards defraying general educational expenditure. Sums raised by private contributions and subscriptions for the construction of school-houses are credited to this fund. All charges on account of educational buildings have been hitherto met from it and divided into charges on account of original buildings and repairs of Government colleges and schools and building grants to aided colleges and schools. These charges have of late years greatly exceeded the annual receipts from interest and local contributions, and it has been necessary from time to time to divert considerable sums from capital. The Presidency College, the Senate-house, and the Combaconum College have largely contributed to the depletion of this fund, which was reduced on the 31st March 1878 to Rupees 2,03,500 with a cash balance of Rupees 32,980. It has now been resolved to reserve this fund for charges connected with Government buildings and to give building grants to aided schools out of the provincial allotment for grants-in-aid.

School fees.

The undermentioned scale of monthly school fees has been levied or required since the 1st January 1878 in Government schools and schools aided by Government :—

Classes.	Madras.		A. Mofussil Towns of the first grade.		B. Mofussil Towns of the second grade.		C. Mofussil Towns of the third grade.	
	Government.	Aided.	Government.	Aided.	Government.	Aided.	Government.	Aided.
College.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.
B.A., 10th and 9th ...	5 0	3 8	4 0	3 0	4 0	2 12	...	...
F.A., 8th and 7th	5 0	3 8	4 0	3 0	3 0	2 0	...	...
High School.								
6th or Matriculation ...	3 8	2 8	3 0	2 0	2 8	1 12	...	...
5th	3 0	2 0	2 8	1 12	2 0	1 8	...	...
Middle School.								
Upper fourth	2 8	1 12	2 0	1 8	2 0	1 8	1 4	1 0
Lower fourth	2 0	1 8	1 8	1 0	1 8	1 0	1 0	0 12
Third	1 8	1 0	1 0	0 12	1 0	0 12	0 12	0 8
Upper Primary.								
Second	1 0	0 12	0 12	0 8	0 12	0 8	0 8	0 6
Lower Primary.								
First	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 6	0 8	0 6	0 6	0 4
Preparatory B.	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 2	0 4	0 2	0 2	0 1
Do. A.	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 1	0 2	0 1	0 1	0 0½

Mofussil towns of the first grade (A) are Combaconum, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Negapatam, Coimbatore, Tinnevelly, Palamcottah, and Saidapet. Under mofussil towns of the second grade (B) are included all other towns having Colleges and High schools with Srirungum, Trivadi, Tiruvarur and such other towns having only middle schools as may from time to time be placed in this grade. All other towns having only middle schools rank in the third grade (C). Only 5 per cent. of the whole number of pupils in any school are allowed to be free scholars exclusive of students on endowments. The object of this rule is to make schools as self-supporting as possible. Besides these fees an entrance fee is charged when a pupil first enters a school at the rate of Rupees 3 in the Matriculation class, Rupees 2 in the fifth, upper fourth, and lower fourth classes, and Rupee 1 in the other classes. In mofussil towns of the third grade, the entrance fee is the fee of the class into which the pupil is admitted. Mahomedan and Ooriya pupils pay only half the above rates. No rules have been laid down with regard to school fees in girls' schools, and the fees in the Practising Departments of Normal schools are not regulated by the above scale. No school fees are levied in the hill schools of Gumsur and Chinna Kimedy and some of the other elementary schools maintained by Government for special classes. The rules relating to school fees have been declared not to be in force in schools aided on the results or combined system, and in schools supported directly by Local Fund and Municipal Boards it is left to the Boards and Com-

missioners to decide whether any, and if so what, fees shall be levied. In Government institutions maintained from Provincial funds all school fees are paid into the treasury and credited to Provincial services.

Government scholarships.

There are at present four kinds of Government stipendiary scholarships, that is to say (1), scholarships awarded on the result of the University examinations; (2), scholarships given to Ooriya pupils in the taluk schools of the Ganjam District; (3), scholarships held by Normal students; and (4), scholarships tenable in the Civil Engineering College, the School of Arts, and the School of Agriculture.

Outlay on education.

The following percentage statement shows the proportionate amount spent from all sources on the different branches of education as shown by the figures of the same year:—

General Instruction.	Superintendence	10·30
	Superior Instruction	6·34
	Secondary do.	22·91
	Primary do.	45·75
	Miscellaneous	7·29
Special Instruction.	Superior Instruction in Law, Medicine, and Civil Engineering...	·48
	Secondary Instruction in Professional Colleges and Technical Schools	4·14
	Normal Schools	2·18
	Scholarships	6·1

The following statement shows the total expenditure on Government and Private institutions as distributed between public and private funds according to the returns of a recent year. The table shows, that is to say how much is given on the whole by the State, and how much by the public. The fees collected in purely Government institutions and carried to credit was Rupees 1,22,068-0-9; the net expenditure was therefore less by this amount than the sum shown below. The figures do not include expenditure on buildings:—

Source of Expenditure.	Government Institutions.			Private Institutions.		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
Provincial Funds	5,56,707	5	11	2,81,895	5	9
Local Funds	1,45,087	8	0	2,09,514	8	7
Municipal Funds	30,545	15	3	39,223	7	8
Subscriptions, Donations, &c.	99,807	5	1	9,53,121	5	3
Total ...	8,32,148	2	3	14,83,754	11	3

Order of subjects in the Administration Reports.

In the annual reports on Public Instruction the subjects treated of are arranged under orders from the Government of India in the following order:—I, Introduction; II, Controlling agencies; III, University education; IV, Secondary education; V, Primary education; VI, Schools for special or technical training; VII, Scholarships; VIII, Employment of students in the public service; IX, Books; X, General statistics.

BOOK REGISTRATION.

Act XXV of 1867, which provides for the preservation of copies of all books printed in British India and for the registration of such books, came into operation in the Madras Presidency with effect from the 1st July 1867 under the late Director of Public Instruction, who was appointed to act as the first Registrar of Books. On the 1st January 1868 this officer was relieved of the Registrarship at his own request, and a separate Registrar was appointed. The work of collecting, cataloguing, and preserving copies of books printed in the Presidency town belongs to the Registrar of Books; similar duties are performed in the districts by the District Registrars of Assurances, who are in communication with the Registrar of Books at Madras and transmit their collections to him. Printers are compelled to furnish Registrars with three copies of each of their publications within a month from the date of issue from the press, together with a memorandum of particulars regarding each work as laid down in the Act; and, to induce a general compliance with the provision of the law, and to encourage the punctual delivery of books, their published prices are paid to the presenters. It has not yet been found necessary to enforce the penal provisions of the Act. The Registrar of Books compiles for publication in Fort St. George Gazette quarterly catalogues of all registered works with a short statement of the contents of such of them as do not carry the information in their titles or as otherwise deserve distinction, copies of the works themselves being despatched to Government once a month for transmission to the Government of India and the Secretary of State. He further submits an annual analysis and review of the published literature of this Presidency and other periodical reports called for by the Government of India and the local Government. In this way a tolerably correct acquaintance is obtained by the Administration with the progress of literary effort during each year, and with the tendency of the published works. The registration of copyright is optional with the proprietors of books.

Nature of the system.

GOVERNMENT BOOK DEPARTMENT.

The Government Book Department, the work of which lies in the supply and distribution of English and Vernacular books for the use of Government and other schools, has now been in operation for twenty years. The Book agency consists of a Central Depôt in Madras under

Constitution of the Book Department.

charge of a Curator, and subordinate to this depôt are 19 branch or district depôts at the principal up-country stations managed by local agents who are styled District Curators. The curators are paid by a commission in addition to fixed salaries. Up to the year 1871 the whole cost of the Book Department was included in the Annual Educational budget, but in the beginning of that year a change was made and salaries only were left to be provided for by the Educational Department. The printing and purchase of books and other operations of the Book Department are carried on now by means of advances made by Government, who recoup themselves from the sale proceeds of books. This system has been successfully worked for nearly nine years, and the department has become fully self-supporting, leaving in fact a surplus after the payment of all charges including the salaries provided for in the Educational budget. The selling prices of books are fixed on the following system:—In the case of English books imported an addition of 20 to 25 per cent. is made to the published price. In the case of Indian books locally purchased, 10 per cent. is added to the published price, taking no account of the discount allowed by the publishers. With regard to books printed for the department, 25 per cent. is added to the cost price in the case of editions of new books, and this margin is worked up to 50 per cent. by reducing the cost of printing in the case of fresh editions of old books. The former charge includes the amount paid to the author or compiler, while the latter secures a margin of profit without any addition to the price first fixed.

MISCELLANEOUS LITERARY.

Book Translator.

A Tamil Translator on a fixed salary of Rupees 100 is employed under the supervision of the Curator of Government books in translating books required for the Government Book Department, in revising old editions, and correcting proofs of new editions published for sale.

Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society.

The Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society has hitherto received an annual grant of Rupees 2,000 from Government. In September 1875 the grant for 1876 was reduced to Rupees 1,500. The Society's Magazine, the Janavinodini, which is now published in Telugu as well as in Tamil, is very popular. A good Telugu Dictionary for the use of students being a desideratum, the Committee have agreed to pay Rupees 5,000 for a dictionary, and the work is now going through the press. The publication of this work will necessarily be a heavy drain on the resources of the society. Such profits as the

society makes are derived from reprints of school books, many of which are likely to be superseded. Besides reprints of school books, interesting articles from the Janavinodini are reprinted and sold in the form of tracts at prices ranging from 1 pie to 3 pies.

Library of Oriental Manuscripts.

The Library of Oriental Manuscripts is under the charge of the Professor of Sanscrit in the Presidency College. When this officer assumed charge of the library on the 4th November 1872 he found it in bad order. Since then the manuscripts have been nearly all catalogued and placed in substantial teakwood glass cases. An index to sixty-two manuscript volumes of local records has been published. The Professor of Sanscrit was directed in 1868 to carry out certain orders issued by the Government of India in regard to the discovery and preservation of the records of ancient Sanscrit literature. He was to take such measures as might be necessary for commencing the printing of all procurable unprinted lists of Sanscrit manuscripts in the Native Libraries. He was also to arrange for the examination of the manuscripts named in the Native catalogues printed as above described, for the discovery of new manuscripts, for their purchase, and for the employment of copyists to transcribe codices which were unique, extremely old, or otherwise desirable, but which the possessors refused to sell. He was to make occasional short tours for these objects and was to take advantage of every opportunity of inquiring for and procuring any ancient manuscripts in the vernacular languages which he might consider to be of historical or literary value. All these undertakings are in course of execution, and a catalogue of lists of Sanscrit manuscripts belonging to private libraries in Southern India is in the press.

MADRAS MEDICAL COLLEGE.

Nature of the institution.

The Madras Medical College was established in 1835 for the instruction in Medicine and Surgery of persons entering the medical branch of the public service. The benefits of instruction have been since thrown open to the community at large, but the students are still for the most part of the class just mentioned. The Medical College is under the general control of the Director of Public Instruction, the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department, being *ex-officio* visitor. The pupils in attendance at the College consist of—(1.) Pupils of the First Department, comprising candidates for the University Degrees of M.B. and C.M., and Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery; the only qualification for entry being that candidates must have passed the general educational standard laid down by the University. Under

recent orders of Government, however, a scale of fees has been laid down for admission of students in either of the sections of the First Department of the College. (2.) Pupils of the Second Department, comprising Military Hospital Apprentices qualifying for employ as Military Assistant Apothecaries, and Civil Hospital Apprentices qualifying for employ as Civil Apothecaries under the Government or Local Boards; the test for entry being a competitive examination in the former case, and the University Matriculation examination in the latter. (3.) Pupils of the Junior Department, comprising Military Native Medical Pupils qualifying for employ as Military Hospital Assistants, and Civil Medical Pupils qualifying for employ as Civil Hospital Assistants under the Government or Local Boards; the test for entry being a competitive examination in either case. (4.) Female students qualifying for a certificate of fitness to pursue the medical profession, the course of instruction laid down for them being the same as that for the Apothecary class. The students of the Second and Junior Departments mentioned above spend the earlier part of their course attached to Military and Civil Hospitals, and the latter part of their course as pupils at the College itself. The technical course of education consists of Anatomy, Botany, Chemistry, Pharmacy, Physiology, Materia Medica, Surgery and Practice of Medicine, Hygiene, Midwifery and Diseases of Women and Children, Diseases of the Eye, Comparative Anatomy, Medical Jurisprudence, Pathology, Clinical instruction in Medicine, Surgery, &c. The lectures on Chemistry, Botany, Physiology, Medical Jurisprudence, Hygiene, Organic Chemistry, Comparative Anatomy, Practical Chemistry, and Practical Pharmacy are also open to the public on payment of certain stipulated fees.

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE.

Nature of the institution.

This has already been noticed in Section IV, and additional remarks are unnecessary.

CIVIL ENGINEERING COLLEGE.

Nature of the institution.

The old Government Survey School was established in 1834 for the purpose of training men as Surveyors under the Revenue Department. In order to supply the wants of the Department of Public Works the curriculum of instruction was extended and the Survey School merged

in the Civil Engineering College. When first established the College had for its object the training of men as subordinates only, that is to say, as Overseers and Sub-Overseers in the Department of Public Works; but in 1861 a Special Class for Drawing and Estimating was formed, and in March 1862 a First Department was established for the purpose of training Military Officers and under-graduates of the Madras University holding the F.A. diploma for the position of Assistant Engineers. In December 1862 an Officers' Surveying Class was added. The Civil Engineering College therefore now consists of a First Department, Officers' Surveying Class, Second Department, Special Survey Class, and Drawing Classes. The educational staff consists of a Principal; two masters for mathematics and engineering; four masters for surveying, drawing, and estimating; and two munshis for vernacular languages. The number of students has risen from 46 in 1859 to 179 at the close of 1878-79. Of this number 8 are in the college and 171 in the school. The First Department is open to officers of Her Majesty's British and Indian Armies and Civilians, Europeans and Natives. The Second Department consists of European Non-commissioned Officers and Soldiers of Her Majesty's British and Indian Forces and Civilians (Europeans, Eurasians, and Natives).

OOTACAMUND LAWRENCE ASYLUM.

Origin and object.

Sir Henry Lawrence in 1856, after having established the Hill Asylums for the children of the British soldiers at Sunawur and Mount Aboo, offered a donation of Rupees 5,000 if a similar institution could be founded on the Nilgiris. The proposal was warmly received by the residents at Ootacamund, but the project fell through owing to a want of unanimity in regard to the religious basis upon which the asylum was to be founded. Two years later, in 1858, after Sir Henry Lawrence's death, the matter was again brought forward and the present asylum was established. The object in establishing the asylum was twofold:—1st, To do honor to the memory of Sir Henry Lawrence; and, 2ndly, to benefit the children of the European soldiery, by providing a refuge from the debilitating effects of a tropical climate and the demoralizing influence of barrack life.

Constitution and funds.

The asylum consists of two branches, male and female. Owing to the want of a separate building for a hospital, the number of boys is limited to 330. The number of girls is limited to 60, as the building in which they are located is not capable of accommodating more than that number. The management of the institution is placed in the

hands of a committee of nine members, four of whom are appointed by Government. The Commander-in-Chief and the Bishop of Madras are the patrons of the institution. The Principal of the Asylum must be a clergyman of the Church of England, and his appointment is subject to the approval of the Governor in Council. In September 1871, after many years of correspondence and delay, the children of the Madras Military Male Asylum were transferred to the Nilgiri institution. The asylum receives a grant-in-aid from Government of Rupees 4,000 per mensem, 66 per cent. of which is placed to the credit of the male branch and the remaining 34 per cent. to that of the female branch. The funded capital of the male branch belonging originally to the Military Male Orphan Asylum is Rupees 4,89,200, the interest and Government donation on which amount Rupees 38,828 per annum. The Asylum Press contributes a liberal grant of about Rupees 10,000 a year. Another source of income is the sum obtained on account of military pay and orphan allowance to which children and orphans of soldiers are entitled. At present this averages about Rupees 1,000 per mensem. The other sources of income are variable.

UNCOVENANTED CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.

Former Test Examinations.

These examinations owe their origin to the Educational Despatch from the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Governor-General of India, dated 19th July 1854. This despatch authorized the Government of India to establish a liberal system of education throughout India, and approved of the institution of examinations for testing the fitness of candidates for offices under Government. The discussion of details occupied considerable time, but a scheme of examination for all Government appointments in this Presidency above the grade of peon was at last promulgated in March 1858, when for the purposes of the examination the Uncovenanted Service was formed into two divisions, the first including all appointments the salary of which exceeded Rupees 50 per mensem, and the second all appointments below that grade and above the grade of peon. The examination standards of the various departments are given in full in Appendix F of the Madras Educational Report for 1858-59. The examinations just mentioned were for a short time held under the direction of the late Board of Examiners with the following total results :—Passed for the 1st Division, English Department, 65 ; for the 1st Division, Judicial Department, 2 ; for the 1st Division, Revenue

Department, 4; for the 2nd Division, English Department, 336; and for the 2nd Division, Revenue and Judicial Departments, 646, making a total altogether of 1,053 passed candidates. No fee was required for the old test examinations, and the consequence was that more examinees came forward than could be provided with proper accommodation. Copying and other malpractices could not be prevented; and in order to reduce the number of examinees to more manageable proportions the Government, in an order of the 11th October 1860, authorized several modifications to be made in the examination scheme, amongst which were the exemption of all appointments of Rupees 25 per mensem and under from the operation of the rules, and the exaction of a fee. In consultation with the then Director of Public Instruction, the management of these examinations was at the same time transferred to a Commissioner, and the tests became what is now known as the "General Test."

Present General Test Examinations.

The rules for the General Test at present in force were published as a notification, dated the 26th April 1861, in the Fort St. George Gazette. According to the most recent orders, appointments of Rupees 20 per mensem and under are exempted, but in the case of all other appointments the candidate for office must have passed this examination; in the case of the special appointments, a very large class for which "special tests" are provided, the qualifications are of course more severe. The present General Test is an elementary examination in language, hand-writing, spelling, arithmetic, Indian history, and General Geography. The General Test is divided into three branches, according as the candidate elects to pass in hand-writing, composition, and orthography, in English or in a Vernacular language, or in both. The appointments in the public service are similarly roughly classed in a corresponding manner (though there is no schedule giving a precise definition) into English, Vernacular, and Anglo-Vernacular appointments; the candidates for any of these appointments must have passed in the corresponding branch. Seventeen of the examinations have been held, and 2,790 candidates have been declared qualified for the public service according to the Anglo-Vernacular Branch, 3,785 according to the English Branch, and 3,317 according to the Vernacular Branch of the test.

Present Special Test Examinations.

The present Special Test Examinations were instituted for the purpose of testing the fitness of candidates for particular situations demanding special qualifications, and the first examination of this nature was held in March 1863 in subjects relating to the Judicial and Magisterial Departments. The Revenue Tests came into force in 1864. The original rules bear date the 4th February and 30th May 1862; later on these were revised, and the rules were again superseded by those published under date the 29th July 1869. The latter remain

in force with certain slight alterations. Under the rules no persons are admitted to any of the Special Tests except those who have passed the General Test or the University Entrance Examination, but exceptions are sometimes made under the authority of Government. The result of the Special Test Examinations from their commencement in declaring candidates eligible for particular offices is as follows:—

	No. passed.
Principal Sadr Amins, District Munsifs, and Pleaders in Civil and Sessions Courts, Principal Sadr Amins' Courts, and Courts of Small Causes	661
Pleaders in District Munsifs' Courts	1,061
Court Sheristadars	285
Deputy Collectors and Magistrates	418
Nazirs in Civil and Sessions Courts and Principal Sadr Amins' Courts	88
Sub-Magistrates, 1st Class	735
Uncovenanted Assistants and Sheristadar of the Revenue Board Office	215
Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents, Salt Department	102
Superintendents of Sea Customs	88
Huzur Sheristadars	231
Abkari Superintendent, Deputy Superintendent, Madras	
Tahsildars and 2nd-class Sub-Magistrates, Taluk Sheristadars, Deputy Tahsildars, &c.	816
Sub-Collector's Sheristadar and Head Assistant's Head Clerk	295
Superintendents, Clerks, and Accountants in the Accountant-General's Office	257
Accountants in the English Department of Collectors' Offices drawing a salary of Rupees 50 and upwards ...	
Accountant in the Board's Office	
Accountant, Deputy Accountant, and Book-keeper in the Mint and Assay Office	
Accountant, Marine Office	
Do. Sea Customs Office	
Do. Stamp Office	
Do. Office of the Conservator of Forests ...	
Translators, High Court and Civil and Sessions Courts..	181
Interpreter, Court of Small Causes, Madras	
Do. Office of the Commissioner of Police ...	
Do. Police Courts	
Translators, Office of Government	2,955
Do. Revenue Board	
Do. Revenue Settlement Office	
Do. Collectors' Offices	
Chief Clerk or Manager, Royapettah Police Court ...	51
Head Clerks, Police Courts	1,307
Assistant Head Clerk, Royapettah Police Court ...	
English Record-keepers, Collectors' Offices	
Head Writers, Civil and Sessions Courts and Principal Sadr Amins' Courts	
Head Clerks, Small Cause Courts	
Appointments in Public Offices for which Precis-writing alone is prescribed as a test	3,379

COMMITTEE FOR EXAMINATION OF ASSISTANTS.

Functions.

The Committee for the Examination of Assistants took the place in 1867 of the Board of Examiners. It now consists of a President and a certain number of members *ex-officio* and special. The President is always the Second Member of the Board of Revenue; the Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, Malayalam, and Hindustani and Persian Translators to Government, the Sub-Secretary to the Board of Revenue, and the Registrar of the High Court, Appellate Side are members *ex-officio*. Other Members of the Committee are appointed at the pleasure of Government. At present the special members are the Collector of Madras and one of the Judges of the High Court. In conjunction with District Committees appointed under the authority of Government, the Committee conducts the technical half-yearly examinations of Covenanted Assistant Collectors under what are called the first and second standards. The Committee also conducts quarterly language examinations in Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, Malayalam, and Hindustani for rewards to Covenanted Civil Servants and for rewards to, or pass qualifications of, the following officers:—*Candidates in the Service:* 1, Chaplains; 2, Public Works Department Officers; 3, Farm Superintendents; 4, Forest Officers; 5, Jail Superintendents; 6, Medical Officers; 7, Military Officers; 8, Police Officers; 9, Postal Officers; 10, Revenue Survey Officers; 11, Revenue Settlement Officers; 12, Telegraph Officers; 13, Trigonometrical Survey Officers; 14, Topographical Survey Officers; 15, Geological Survey Officers; 16, Uncovenanted Officers. *Candidates not in the Service:* 17, Agents and Accountants of the Madras Bank; 18, Railway Officers. Referring to the numbers just given the titles of the corresponding language tests are as follows: under Nos. 1, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 Lower Standard in Hindustani, Higher Standard in Hindustani, and in the South Indian Vernaculars; under Nos. 1, 6, and 7 High Proficiency and Honors according to the Military Examination rules, under 2 D. P. W. Test, under 3 Farm Test, under 4 Forest Test, under 5 and 6 Colloquial Test, under 8 Police Test, under 10 and 11 Revenue Survey and Settlement Test, under 17 Bank Test, under 18 Railway Test. For the Vernacular Examinations the Committee is divided into sub-committees, each sub-committee consisting of the President or a Member and a Translator to Government. For the High Proficiency and Honors Examinations, under the special rules for the encouragement of the study of Oriental languages, a scholar of reputation, outside the Committee, is appointed on each occasion as an extra member by Government. The Committee

have occasionally to conduct examinations in other languages also. When a candidate has passed the High Proficiency Examination, the Committee grants a special certificate. When the Honors Examination is passed a certificate is granted by the Governor in Council. The Committee also examine Police Officers and Cantonment Magistrates in law.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

(a.)—*Madras School of Arts.*

Nature of the institution.

The School of Industrial Arts was established privately by Dr. Hunter in 1850, and was supported till 1855 by fees from pupils, by payments for drawings, engravings, and other work turned out in the school, and by small contributions from the public. In 1855 the school was taken up by Government, and a committee, in communication with Dr. Hunter, laid down rules and a course of instruction. Owing to the difficulties in finding competent technical instructors and a suitable class of students, the method of the school has somewhat fallen away from the intention of Government as then expressed. Of late, however, the institution has engaged the particular attention of Government, and efforts are being made to extend its usefulness. The school is divided into a Drawing Academy and an Industrial Department. The course of instruction at the former is very similar to that adopted at South Kensington; all attempts at high art are discouraged, and efforts are made to introduce an accurate standard of free hand. A girls' branch has been opened in the Drawing Academy and promises to be successful. As the pupils in the Drawing Academy show aptitude, endeavours will be made to apprentice them to skilled workmen in the industrial department, enabling them thus to work at drawing and one of the crafts together. In the Industrial Department the pupils are paid for their labor, and it forms in fact a kind of Government workshop for carrying out art experiments. No difficulty is found in providing an outlet for the work produced in the Industrial Department, but care is taken to avoid competition with local trades by introducing only arts which are not practised outside. The work done in the Industrial Department has of late been considerably extended. Thus to pottery, engraving, wood-cutting, and plaster-moulding have been added recently glass-painting (enamels), stone-carving, wood-carving, different kinds of metal work, and wall decorating. This institution is now under the charge of Mr. R. F. Chisholm.

(*b.*)—*Museums.*

Nature of Government operations.

The efforts of Government to establish Museums in this Presidency commenced, under authority of the Court of Directors, in 1851. In that year the Madras Literary Society presented to Government a collection of geological specimens, and this, with the duplicates left after despatching the articles for the "Great Exhibition," formed the nucleus of what is now the Government Central Museum. Subsequently, in 1855, subordinate museums were established at Bellary, Cuddalore, Mangalore, Rajahmundry, and Ootacamund for local purposes and with the object also of serving as feeders for the Central Museum; these were not successful, and with the exception of the one at Rajahmundry were closed in June 1861. In case of Ootacamund the allowance of Rupees 100 per mensem withdrawn from the museum was transferred to the Public Library there and continued till 1875, in which year both it and the grant for the Rajahmundry Museum were discontinued. In 1855 the formation of a Zoological Garden in connection with the Central Museum was sanctioned, and the animals were retained there till 1863, when they were transferred to the Madras Peoples' Park. The Government continued to meet the cost of feeding the collection till the close of 1875, when it became a Municipal charge. The Central Museum has been always open to the public free of charge, and the large numbers which daily frequent it show that the boon is appreciated. The museum forms a source of recreation to the people, but its chief objects are to encourage a taste for, and afford means for popular instruction in Indian Geology, Botany, and Zoology. It is also intended to develop the resources of the country by exhibiting raw-products, to provide facilities for the scientific teacher or student of natural history or forestry, and to illustrate the ethnology and archæology of the Presidency, and the manners and customs of its aboriginal inhabitants. The Museum possesses two well appointed libraries—one scientific, and one general—open to the public daily.

(*c.*)—*Architecture.*

Nature of Government operations.

With a view to the improvement of architectural and structural designs in Government buildings, the Madras Government have for some years entertained a Consulting Architect, to whom all projects for important buildings are sent, and from whom designs for various purposes are called for. In nearly all cases the design merely is called for, and the execution is handed over to the Public Works Department, subject to general superintendence by the Consulting Architect. Works at the Presidency town, however, are usually put under direct charge of the Consulting Architect, who then executes them with Public Works subordinate agency. The main objects kept

in view by the Consulting Architect's Department are a comprehensive consideration of the capabilities of the various materials, the suppression of ornament serving no useful end, the careful arrangement of apartments with a view to economy, the thoughtful distribution of parts and masses to avoid ugliness, and the development of ideas and forms suitable to the climate and country. Among the more important buildings constructed during the past few years are the Presidency College, Madras; the Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund; the College, Combaconum; the Public Library, Madras; the Revenue Board, Madras; and the Senate House, Madras (in progress). Among the works of restoration and adaptation are Teroomal Naik's Palace, Madura; the old Palace at Trichinopoly; and the new Palace at Royapettah, Madras. With the exception of the Presidency College, Madras, and the Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund, the whole of these buildings have been constructed in oriental styles with oriental ornamentation; the introduction of European taste has been as much as possible avoided, with a view to giving every advantage to the development of arts indigenous to the country, and with a view to avoiding the necessity for using European ornamentation which it is impossible to imitate and difficult to import. The incumbent of the post since its institution has been Mr. R. F. Chisholm.

(*d.*)—*Madras Observatory.*

Nature of the institution.

The Madras Observatory was instituted in the year 1792, and the present Government Astronomer, Mr. Norman Pogson, was appointed in 1861. The work of the observatory consists in observations of stars, the preparation of catalogues and maps, and the conducting of scientific experiments connected with astronomy; besides the usual attention to all casual phenomena, such as eclipses, transits, occultations, phenomena of Jupiter's Satellites, &c. From the years 1841 to 1861 systematic hourly records of magnetical and meteorological instruments were made. The publication of the results of these registers is still in progress; the observations themselves having been continued only upon a reduced scale, consisting of three observations per day.

(*e.*)—*Meteorological Department.*

Nature of the department.

The Meteorological Department of Madras was established in the year 1867 with a view to securing a better knowledge of the climatic conditions of various parts of the Presidency. Observations of undoubted excellence had been made at the Madras Observatory ever since the close of the last century, and for a shorter term of years at Bombay, Calcutta, Trevandrum, and Simla, but no reliable records with properly compared instruments had been made generally over

India. Meteorological Superintendents were accordingly in that year appointed for Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the North-West Provinces, with Assistants in the various up-country stations, in correspondence with the Meteorological Superintendents, but acting under the immediate orders of the local Medical officer. At the end of 1874 a Meteorologist to the Government of India was appointed at the head of the whole establishment. The stations of the Madras Presidency are at present twelve in number, Bangalore, Bellary, Cochin, Coimbatore, Kurnool, Madura, Masulipatam, Negapatam, Salem, Secunderabad, Trichinopoly, and Wellington. The Madras Observatory meteorological observations are made available for the purposes of the Meteorological Department, but do not strictly belong to it, being still under the sole control of the Government Astronomer, and being maintained out of his budget estimates. Monthly mean and extreme results of the twelve stations in the Madras Presidency are printed in the Fort St. George Gazette for current use. The rainfall returns from the registration stations of the Madras Presidency are published in the Fort St. George Gazette by the Meteorological Superintendent, and from these tables the facts in regard to district rainfall are compiled by the Sanitary Commissioner and results shown in the form of diagrams in his reports.

SECTION VIII.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

Archæological remains in the Presidency.

No archæological department as yet exists in this Presidency. A general list of the principal objects of antiquarian interest in each of the districts in charge of the Revenue Department is here given pending the appearance of the complete series of District Manuals. To the list must be added Terumala Naick's Palace at Madura, which is now in course of reconstruction by the Department Public Works, and is in charge of that department. There are also of course very numerous public monuments, buildings, including all pagodas and mosques still used as places of worship, which are in the hands of private individuals or corporations, and which there are no means of cataloguing :—

District.	Taluk.	Village.	Name or Description of Building.
Ganjam ...	Berhampore ...	Jagoda	Rock engravings exhibiting the Asoka tablet said to be more than 2,300 years old.
Kistna	Guntoor	Undavalli ...	The rock caves at Undavalli.
	Satianapalli ...	Amaravati ...	The remains of the Amaravati tope.
	Palnad	Pedugural ...	The mound at Pedugural.
	Gudivada	...	A colossal figure of Buddha in the enclosure of a choultry at Gudivada.
	Bezwada	...	Buddha images (stone and copper) in the library at Bezwada.
	Vinucondah ...	...	The mantapam in Vinucondah used by the Post Office.
	Narsarowpett ...	...	The Fort at Kondavied.
	Bezwada	...	Do. at Kondapally.
	Satianapalli ...	...	Do. at Bellumkonda.
	Nandigama ...	...	The carved stone of the Ramireddipulli hill.
Cuddapah ...	Voilpaud	...	Old palace at Gurrumkondah with upstairs.
	Madnapalli ...	...	Pagoda at Sompalli. Carved monolith in front with fine carvings. Fresco paintings.
	Cuddapah	...	Four buildings formerly occupied as palaces of the Nawab of Cuddapah.
	Jammalmadugu ...	...	Two temples constructed about 700 years ago and one mosque built about 400 years ago situated at Gundicola hill.

District.	Taluk.	Village.	Name or Description of Building.
Bellary ...	Hospett	...	Stone-posts and stone car belonging to the Vejia Vittaldevor temple in Venkatapur, said to be in ruins.
	Huvinhadgalli ...	Magalam	Temple of Vainogopaulsawmy.
	Hospett	Anantasawyana-gudi.	Temple of Anantasawmy.
		Malpangudi ...	Temple of Iswara.
		In the limits of Kamalapur.	Temple of Pattabhirama. Temple of Kumbara. Mattam of Chandrasikara. Rock cut room or hall. Temple of Yellamma. A tower, the top of which is in the shape of a lotus. Another tower (dark). Another tower called Bangalada. Palace with spiral steps. Anisalumantapam, or elephant stables. Nowbuthkhana. Penalaramamantapam. Gymnasium of Achuta Row. Agasaquith Mahal, *i.e.*, Washerman's palace. Temple of Hajar Ramachendra. Nelamani, *i.e.*, a house in the grouud. Maharavani Dedhba or Simhasanam or throne. Vokalihonda or Bath. Bhimanabagalu, *i.e.*, Bhima's gate. Ganjetti Temple, *i.e.*, of Oilmongers.
		Khaderampuram ...	Mantapam near Uddana Varabhudra's temple.
		In limits of Kristnapuram.	Ugra Narasimha's temple. Badali Linga temple. Krishnapuram temple. Volakihonda temple.
		In the limits of Humpi.	Sasivikalu Benakappa. Mantapam of Hemakootam. Kadikal Benakappa. Mantam of Nija Linga. Manmatha Muda. Lokapavanum. Temple of Edura Basappa.
		In Venkatāpur ...	Mathangi hill. Bazaar and temple of Atchutapuram. Temple of Rungasawmi. Temple of Yentradaraka. Temple of Rama. Sittiasarovaram Kalum temple. Varaha temple. Malyanantha Ragoonathasawmy. Temple of Goddada Simmappa.
Chingleput ...	Saidapet	...	"Puncha Pandova Malay" close to Palaveram.
	Chingleput ...	...	Mahabalipuram or "Seven Pagodas." There is a small shrine cut out of a single rock in the village of Vallam.
North Arcot ...	Chendragheri ...	...	1. Rajah Mahal or Rajah's palace of Chendragheri. Built by the Telugu kings. Rajah Sreeranga Rozer of that dynasty is said to have signed the Treaty granting the settlement of Madras to the English in the centre room in 1640. The mahal is unique for strength and peculiarity of architecture; built almost entirely of granite, no wood being employed. 2 Rani Mahal, a smaller building adjoining.
	Arcot	...	Delhi Dorwaja.
South Arcot ...	Cuddalore ...	...	1. The garden house. Built about 1738; was more than once captured by the French. During the period from 1746 to 1752, when Fort St. David was the chief settlement on the Coromandel Coast, this building is said to have been the Governor's residence. 2. The forts of Gingee, Thiatgur, Perumagul, Valdoor, and St. David. At Fort St. David some remains of the subterraneous gallery which ran round the fort under the glacis and of the mines leading off from it were not long ago discovered and opened up. 3. An obelisk to the memory of Major Stevens, Chief Engineer in the Army under Sir H. Munro, killed at the siege of Pondicherry in 1778. 4. Some old tombs in an ancient grave-yard at Cuddalore. 5. An old grave-yard near Fort St. David. 6. A cenotaph at Trickalore.

District.	Taluk.	Village.	Name or Description of Building.
Tanjore ...	Tanjore	...	The palace of the late Rajah of Tanjore in charge of the Government Agent and occupied by the relatives of the late Rajah.
Trichinopoly ...	...	...	1. Nawab's palace. 2. Main Guard gate.
Madura ...	Madura	...	Tamakam Bungalow. Said to have been built by the ancient kings as a stand whence to witness the fights of wild beasts.
Tinnevelly ...	...	...	The rock carvings at Kolugumalai.
	Tuticorin	...	A colossal stone Jain image, about six feet high, now preserved in Tuticorin.

SECTION IX.

MISCELLANEOUS.

LOCAL FUNDS ADMINISTRATION.

Nature of circles and provisions of Act.

In the Madras Presidency the Local Funds properly so called are constituted and administered under Madras Act IV of 1871. The whole of the Presidency outside the limits of municipal towns, and with the exception of the Jeypore Zemindari in Vizagapatam, and the Hill Maliahs in Ganjam, was brought under the operation of the Act immediately on its passing. The country was under the Act divided into circles, in each of which a Local Fund Board was constituted. The Collector of the district is under the Act ex-officio President of each Board situated within his jurisdiction, and the members of the Board are appointed by Government under the restriction that non-official members must be appointed in numbers at least equal to those holding Government appointments. The circles at first constituted were thirty-six in number; the districts of Nellore, Kurnool, Trichinopoly, the Nilgiris, and South Canara formed each one circle; the district of Bellary had three; and the remaining fourteen districts two each. In 1872-73 the two circles in Coimbatore were amalgamated, and the division of the Godavari District was revised so as to make the river the boundary between the circles. From the beginning of 1875-76 the two circles in Vizagapatam have been amalgamated, so that the number now in existence is thirty-four. The Madras Local Funds Act repealed the District Road Cess Act III of 1866 and Education Act VI of 1863. The former imposed a cess not exceeding half an anna in the rupee on the rent-value of occupied land to constitute a fund for the construction and maintenance of local roads. The latter enabled the inhabitants of a locality to tax themselves for the upkeep of schools. On the repeal of these Acts the existing funds and the charges appertaining to local roads and to schools were transferred to the newly-constituted Local Funds. The new Local Funds Act provided for the imposition of a cess similar to the District Road Cess, but with a maximum of 1 anna; for the establishment of tolls upon roads; and for the levy of a house-

tax. Two-thirds of the cess and the whole of the tolls were made applicable exclusively to roads and communications, and the house-tax was declared available for schools only, and was to be imposed only in villages or groups of villages in which schools existed or were about to be established. The objects to which local funds were made applicable were described in the Act to be—(I), the construction, repair, and maintenance of roads and communications ;• (II), the diffusion of education, and with this object in view the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance of schools either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, the inspection of schools and the training of teachers ; (III), the construction and repair of hospitals, lunatic asylums, choultries, markets, tanks and wells ; the payment of all charges connected with the objects for which such buildings have been constructed ; the training and employment of vaccinators and medical practitioners ; the sanitary inspection of towns and villages ; the cleansing of the roads, streets and tanks ; and any other local works of public utility calculated to promote the health, comfort, and convenience of the people. The Act also provided for the transfer to Local Fund Boards of public dispensaries, choultries, tanks, &c., endowed and unendowed ; for vesting the endowments in the Boards ; and for enabling the Board of Revenue to transfer to them the powers of control of charitable endowments conferred by Regulation VII of 1817.

Assets of Circles.

Immediately upon Act IV of 1871 being passed, the land-cess was levied at the maximum rate in all districts except Godavari, Kistna, Kurnool, Chingleput, North Arcot, Tanjore, Madura, and Tinnevelly, where it was fixed at 9 pies. In 1873-74 the rate was raised to 1 anna in the Chittur Circle, and in 1874-75 to the same rate in Vellore, both in the North Arcot District. In Malabar the land-cess was raised in 1878 by special legislation to 2 annas from 1st July of that year. The house-tax under the same Act was imposed at first in those areas in which taxes had been levied and schools maintained under Act VI of 1863, but was discontinued under the orders of Government from the beginning of 1873-74, since which date the Union Funds referred to in the Act have been abolished. In the first year only 9 new toll-gates were established, but the number has since been considerably increased. The figures below show the total number of tolls maintained in each year for the last seven years, including those which in Malabar and Canara are kept up otherwise than under Act IV of 1871 :—

1871-72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	47 tolls.
1872-73	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	51 ,,
1873-74	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55 ,,
1874-75	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	65 ,,
1875-76	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	73 ,,
1876-77	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	86 ,,
1877-78	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	99 ,,

In addition to the sources of revenue just mentioned, the Local Fund Circles have hitherto received an annual grant from Provincial Funds for the special relief of the funds devoted to the construction and maintenance of Imperial roads. They possess also the endowment funds pertaining to the trusts of the endowed institutions handed over to them under the Act; and there are certain other assets, such as a share in surplus pound receipts, ferry rents, fishery and grass rents, &c., which have been made over to them by the Government under conditions. The Provincial grants for the last four years are shown below, and side by side the outlay made by the circles in the same years on the roads in question :—

Years.	Provincial Grants for Roads.*	Outlay on Imperial Roads.†
	Rs.	Rs.
1871-72	9,16,990	11,27,996
1872-73	11,52,115	13,58,591
1873-74	11,74,402	13,06,916
1874-75	11,57,527	13,51,546
1875-76	11,45,624	12,18,083
1876-77	2,48,390	10,43,816

Charges on Circles.

The passing of the Local Funds Act was, though not consequent on, yet coincident with, the decentralization scheme of Provincial finance described further on under Chapter V. The grants made on that occasion towards the control of certain services being less than the past expenditure on those services, the Madras Government was compelled to transfer a considerable burden of charge from Provincial Funds to the Local Funds constituted under Act IV of 1871. Upon what is technically known as the Road Fund was laid the cost of the construction and maintenance of all roads, &c., formerly provided for from the Imperial grant under Communications, with a corresponding charge for Public Works Department Establishment. The charges provided for in the original Public Works Budget of 1871-72 for Communications and so transferred amounted to Rupees 11,27,996. The old District Road Fund paid 10 per cent. on outlay as contribution for Public Works Department Establishment; but in 1871-72 the charge, which was arbitrarily fixed, was Rupees 5,59,083 and at the rate of 18·04 per cent. on the outlay. In 1872-73 and 1873-74 a system was in force under which the cost of the Public Works Department Establishment was rateably distributed amongst the several funds from which outlay was incurred after deduction of certain portions of the cost of establishments maintained for special purposes, these being charged in full to the funds concerned. The percentage charged to Road Fund was in 1872-73 28·97 per cent., and in 1873-74 24·70. In 1874-75 a fixed rate of 25 per cent. on the outlay effected through

* Including establishment grant.

† Excluding establishment charges.

the Public Works Department was introduced and has since been enforced. These arrangements regulated also the charge for Public Works Department Establishment on account of outlay from the other branches of the Local Fund. Under education it was resolved to lay upon Local Funds the whole charges incurred within Local Fund Circles in connection with elementary education; and in pursuance of this decision, the cost of Inspecting Schoolmasters, two-thirds of the cost of Deputy Inspectors and certain contributions towards the cost of Normal Schools were at first imposed on Local Funds. The last two classes of charge were resumed as Provincial in 1874-75. Local Funds bear all grants, salary and results, made to schools of the lower class; but grants paid by Government to schools established under Act VI of 1863 and transferred to Local Boards continue in great part to be credited to Local Funds. The institution of Local Funds has given a great stimulus to primary instruction, and the sums expended upon it are yearly increasing. A modification of the results grant system has been introduced, whereby the permanence of the school is secured by the grant of a small salary to the master, which is supplemented by results grants, so that the master's remuneration still depends to a great extent upon his exertions. Further particulars on this head will be found under Chapter VII. Various charges in connection with medical services were transferred to Local Funds in 1871-72. The whole charges for vaccination, and for the salaries of medical subordinates, cost of medicines, &c., borne by Government in dispensaries endowed and unendowed are now transferred to Local and Municipal Funds. Local Funds contribute also in aid of dispensaries situated in Municipalities. When the medical subordinate in charge of Local Fund Dispensaries is the only one in the station, the Government have been in the habit since 1872-73 of contributing one-fourth of his salary, on condition that his services are available for Government employés at the station. The number of endowed dispensaries is ten only, but the number of Local Fund Dispensaries has increased to a very great extent. In the statement given below are noted the number of dispensaries under Local Fund Boards in each year, and also the total number and income of endowed institutions transferred to them in accordance with the provisions of the Act:—

Years.	Dispensaries endowed and unendowed.	Endowed Institutions.	Endowment Revenue.
			Rs.
1871-72	20	139	45,520
1872-73	34	139	72,935
1873-74	45	196	2,42,806
1874-75	61	208	2,30,585
1875-76	77	200	2,83,032
1876-77	95	205	2,34,317

The travellers' bungalows and choultries throughout the country were, with one or two exceptions, transferred to the Local Boards in 1872-73 and 1873-74. The administration of the Vaccination Department was in 1875-76 handed over to such Local Boards as were willing to receive it, and payment by results as well as other schemes for stimulating operations have since been adopted. The accounts of Local Fund Boards are audited by the Examiner, Public Works Accounts, as regards public works expenditure, and by the Accountant-General as regards other charges. The general administration of Local Funds is vested in the Board of Revenue, the sanction of Government being required for budget estimates for special charges incurred outside the budget, and for transfers of funds from one major head of the budget to another.

MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION—MOFUSSIL.

Historical Survey—Former Acts.

Municipal action in the rural parts of this Presidency may be said to date originally from the passing of Act XXVI of 1850, which authorized inhabitants of towns to raise voluntary taxes for sanitary and other public purposes. Little use was made of this enactment. The next Act of a municipal nature was the Towns Improvement Act X of 1865. The Government had for some time had under consideration the expediency of requiring the inhabitants of towns, who under the fiscal arrangements in force up to that time contributed a far smaller proportion to the general revenues than the inhabitants of the rural districts, to defray a portion of the cost of the Town Police, with the view both of reducing the charge which its maintenance entailed upon the State and so increasing the sum available for the general Police, and of providing funds for placing the Police in towns upon a more efficient footing than had hitherto been practicable. It was pointed out at the time that the moneyed and trading classes who resided and carried on their business in towns did not pay their fair share of taxation, and that at the same time, owing to the number of persons congregated in a small space, and the increased facilities for crime which were thereby occasioned, the expense of Police protection was greater in town than in country. The original intention was to make compulsory only that part of the taxation which was required to defray Police charges, while the raising of a rate for the purposes of conservancy or other purposes of local improvement was to be left optional with the rate-payers, the consent of a majority of whom should in each case be requisite. It was eventually decided however to include among the

purposes for which the funds raised under the Act must necessarily be appropriated, the construction, repair, and maintenance of roads, drains, tanks, &c., and the carrying out of all measures necessary for the preservation of the public health. The Commissioners were provided with means of taxation, and the Government were held liable to pay a contribution amounting to 25 per cent. of the sum spent by the Commissioners on the objects above named. In addition to the funds raised for the purposes so specified, the committees were empowered to raise and expend with the previous sanction of Government such additional amounts as might appear to them necessary for other municipal purposes, for instance, the lighting of the town, the prevention or extinction of fire, the supply of water, &c.

Act of 1871. The Act of 1865 was gradually introduced into all the more important towns, and in 1869-70 was in successful operation in 44 cases. In 1871 it was considered that the Act needed revision, and in Act III of 1871 certain changes were made of considerable importance. The introduction of the financial system known as the "decentralization scheme," which will be found described further on under Chapter V, operated to accelerate the passing of Act III of 1871, but did not materially influence its contents. The Act of 1865 contained a restriction which prevented the appointment as Municipal Commissioners of persons not residing within the limits of the Municipality. Experience had shown that the occasional presence of a European officer as a working member of the Commission was essential to the efficient working of the Act, and it was therefore considered advisable that the Government should have the power of appointing any officer they might think proper, subject to a limitation as to the proportion of official persons who should be members of these Commissions. It was also thought right to substitute the Revenue Officer in charge of the division of the district in which the town was situated for the Executive Engineer as an ex-officio Commissioner. It was considered important that Revenue Officers of all grades as the administrative agents of the Government should identify themselves with the successful working of municipal institutions within their respective ranges, and that they should regard the duty as forming an essential part of their official functions. The qualification for appointment to the office of Municipal Commissioner was also made more elastic, and provision was made for introducing the system of appointment by election whenever the Government might deem it proper to apply that system to a particular Municipality. The particular rules under which the latter arrangement is to be carried out are now being promulgated. One of the most important provisions of the new Act was the application of municipal funds to certain educational and other purposes, which,

though essentially of a local character and such as might properly be met by local taxation, did not come under the provisions of the Towns Improvement Act of 1865. Such for instance was the construction and maintenance of hospitals, the training and employment of medical practitioners, sanitary inspection and the collection of statistics of births and deaths. It was considered of great importance that larger funds than were then available should be provided for all these objects, and it was held to be essential that these funds should be raised by local taxation. The inclusion of education among the purposes to which municipal taxation was to be applied had the effect of making compulsory that which had previously been done in some towns by the voluntary action of a majority of the inhabitants under the provisions of Madras Act VI of 1863; the working of this Act had shown that nothing short of a system of compulsory taxation would suffice for any considerable extension of primary education among the people. The Act of 1871 where introduced supersedes the Act of 1863. Since the passing of the Act of 1871 it has been made a rule of practice that the education undertaken by Municipalities shall be of the "primary" description, that is to say, that it shall not proceed farther than the third of the four standards laid down by Government in the "Results Grant-in-aid" Rules. In addition to the above, vaccination and the registration of births and deaths within the limits of the town devolved on the Municipalities constituted under the new Act. Another important change was the withdrawal of the 25 per cent. grant which under the Towns Improvement Act of 1865 the Government was bound to contribute in aid of the charges for Police and Conservancy. It was at first designed that the Municipalities should be required to pay the whole of the charges for conservancy and other municipal purposes excluding Police, and 60 per cent. of the Police charges. The system in force in Provincial Municipalities would thus have been very nearly assimilated to that in the Presidency town, where the Municipality contributed 50 per cent. of the Police charges. These considerations did not however ultimately prevail, and it was finally decided to withdraw the State aid altogether, to relieve Municipalities from all Police charges, and to leave the municipal powers of taxation in much the same condition as they were before. The motive for withdrawing the grants-in-aid was chiefly a financial one. The measure effected a net annual saving to Imperial or Provincial Funds of about one lakh and a half of rupees. Moreover it would have been impossible to extend the system of State grants to the new system of taxation for local purposes, which was at the same time inaugurated in the rural districts, and there was no valid reason for retaining the grant-in-aid system in the one case and discarding it in the other.

Present situation.

To sum up the present situation of the Mofussil Municipalities, Act III of 1871 has superseded Act X of 1865. By the change the Municipalities have gained in the direction of having no longer to contribute 75 per cent. to Police charges; they have lost however in having had thrown on them four new charges, namely, those for hospitals and dispensaries, for schools, for birth and death registration, and for vaccination. Each Municipality has a Board or Commission presided over by the Collector of the district, and this Board administers the Act under the supervision of the Government. The Board is composed of official and non-official members, the former being not more than one-half of the whole number. The Revenue Officers in charge of recognized divisions of districts are ex-officio members of the Commissions situated within those limits. The members are appointed for a term of three years subject to removal for misconduct or neglect of duty. Provision is also made for election by the rate-payers. The Vice-President may either be appointed by Government or elected by the Commissioners if the power of electing has been conferred on the Local Board by the Government. The taxes authorized by the Act are—(1), rates on houses, buildings, and lands not exceeding 7½ per cent. on the annual rent value; (2), a tax on arts, professions, trades, and callings varying from Rupee 1 to Rupees 100; (3), a tax on carriages, horses, and other animals varying from Annas 4 to Rupees 9 half-yearly; (4), a fee not exceeding Rupees 2 half-yearly for the registration of carts; and (5), tolls on carriages, carts, and animals entering the municipal limits varying from 1 anna to 1 rupee. In addition to the above, fees are leviable for the use of markets, slaughter-houses, and cart-stands and for the exercise under license of offensive or dangerous trades. Rates on houses, lands, or buildings and tolls may be recovered by distress and sale of the movable property of the defaulter or the movable property on the premises, but in the case of the other taxes payment can only be enforced by prosecution before a Magistrate. Since the passing of Act III of 1871 four additional Municipalities have been constituted, making the total number of towns at the end of 1877-78 forty-eight.

The following tables give statistics regarding the Mofussil Municipalities for a recent average year :—

TABLE I.—*Taxation and Incidence.*

Municipalities.	Census Population.	Income from Taxation.	Incidence of Taxation including Tolls.			Incidence of Taxation including Tolls.		
		Rs.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
Adoni	22,723	11,712	0	8	3	0	6	1
Anantapore	4,918	5,119	1	0	7	0	5	6
Bellary	51,766	47,338	0	14	7	0	9	0
Berhampore	21,670	13,658	0	10	1	0	5	0
Bimlipatam	8,744	10,698	1	3	7	0	2	10
Calicut	47,962	25,279	0	8	5	0	7	5
Cannapore	31,358	17,089	0	8	9	0	8	0
Caroor	7,945	8,056	1	0	2	0	7	1
Chellumbrum	15,519	11,438	0	11	9	0	5	6
Chicacole	15,587	7,639	0	7	10	0	2	5
Cocanada	17,839	19,053	1	1	1	0	9	10
Cochin	13,840	6,833	0	7	10	0	7	10
Coimbatore	35,310	22,093	0	10	0	0	6	1
Combaconum	44,444	34,958	0	12	7	0	5	11
Conjeveram	37,327	17,555	0	7	6	0	5	4
Coonoor	3,058	4,086	1	5	4	1	5	4
Cuddalore	40,290	25,354	0	10	1	0	5	1
Cuddapah	16,275	13,191	0	12	11	0	6	8
Dindigul	12,865	7,501	0	9	4	0	3	5
Ellore	25,487	7,476	0	4	8	0	1	10
Erode	7,817	5,789	0	11	10	0	8	11
Ghooty	6,730	4,800	0	11	5	0	4	10
Guntur	18,033	17,652	0	15	8	0	8	11
Kurnool	25,579	14,189	0	8	10	0	4	9
Madura	51,987	39,621	0	12	2	0	5	2
Manargudi	17,703	12,336	0	11	1	0	3	10
Mangalore	29,712	16,867	0	9	1	0	8	0
Masulipatam	36,188	19,347	0	8	6	0	5	1
Mayaveram	21,165	14,399	0	10	10	0	6	2
Negapatam	48,525	39,381	0	13	0	0	9	0
Nellore	29,922	15,483	0	8	3	0	5	11
Ootacamund	9,982	15,313	1	8	7	1	8	7
Palamcottah	17,945	10,983	0	9	10	0	3	11
Palghaut	30,752	16,496	0	8	7	0	2	5
Rajahmundry	19,738	11,040	0	8	11	0	6	0
Salem	50,012	29,288	0	9	4	0	6	2
Srirungum	11,271	8,871	0	12	7	0	12	7
Tanjore	52,175	35,329	0	10	10	0	4	10
Tellicherry	20,504	11,594	0	9	1	0	6	10
Tinnevelly	21,044	11,838	0	9	0	0	3	7
Trichinopoly	76,530	47,657	0	9	11	0	7	10
Tuticorin	10,565	15,879	1	8	0	0	11	10
Vellore	38,022	30,320	0	12	9	0	4	7
Vizagapatam	32,191	21,071	0	10	6	0	4	8
Vizianagram	20,169	11,800	0	9	4	0	3	2
Wallajapett	12,103	7,354	0	9	9	0	4	0

TABLE II.—*Proportion to* 100 *of different outlays.*

Municipalities.	Outlay on Grant I—New Works and Repairs.	Outlay on Grant II—Education.	Outlay on Grant III—Sanitation and Medical Services.	Outlay on Grant IV—Markets, Lighting, Miscellaneous and Public Improvements.	Outlay on Grant V—Executive.	Advances and Refunds.	Closing Balance.
Adoni	15	5	30	5	7	...	38
Anantapore	13	11	50	12	11	...	3
Bellary	29	5	46	10	9	...	1
Ghooty	19	7	49	8	13	...	4
Conjeveram	18	7	43	9	8	5	10
Caroor	36	3	41	7	8	...	5
Coimbatore	14	2	35	10	7	23	9
Erode	21	3	47	12	7	5	5
Cuddapah	21	5	44	10	11	3	6
Berhampore	22	11	36	7	11	...	13
Chicacole	24	9	43	3	9	...	12
Cocanada	35	3	36	11	13	...	2

Municipalities.	Outlay on Grant I—New Works and Repairs.	Outlay on Grant II—Education.	Outlay on Grant III—Sanitation and Medical Services.	Outlay on Grant IV—Lighting, Markets, and Miscellaneous Public Improvements.	Outlay on Grant V—Executive.	Advances and Refunds.	Closing Balance.
Ellore	33	3	32	3	12	...	17
Rajahmundry	27	2	42	6	5	6	12
Guntoor	16	7	46	9	8	1	13
Masulipatam	18	6	49	16	8	2	1
Kurnool	17	1	47	23	8	...	4
Dindigul	38	5	25	14	9	...	9
Madura	19	1	37	14	3	1	25
Calicut	18	4	62	6	8	1	1
Cannanore	17	4	52	11	11	...	5
Cochin	17	19	43	9	11	...	1
Palghaut	55	7	14	3	6	...	15
Tellicherry	27	14	38	2	11	...	8
Coonoor	21	1	37	11	12	7	11
Ootacamund	45	3	16	15	6	2	13
Nellore	15	10	47	14	8	...	6
Vellore	34	3	31	15	5	...	12
Wallajapett	30	9	35	12	14	...	...
Salem	25	8	54	5	7	3	—2
Cuddalore	34	2	41	11	7	...	5
Chellumbrum	15	2	36	6	16	1	24
Mangalore	41	2	26	11	7	1	12
Combaconum	28	6	35	5	6	...	20
Mayaveram	29	12	29	10	7	...	13
Manargudi	28	2	39	11	7	...	13
Negapatam	39	1	30	7	5	...	18
Tanjore	37	6	25	13	8	...	11
Palamcottah	15	4	47	18	9	...	7
Tinnevelly	12	7	46	13	21	...	1
Tuticorin	42	1	40	11	6	...	...
Srirungum	35	3	40	9	6	...	7
Trichinopoly	37	2	35	17	5	1	3
Bimlipatam	28	2	47	11	7	...	5
Vizagapatam	19	9	43	7	12	...	10
Vizianagram	39	5	36	3	17	...	...
Average ...	28	5	38	10	8	1	10

MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION—MADRAS CITY.

History. The Municipality of the City of Madras dates its origin from the passing of Statute 33, George III, Chapter 52, Section 158, and may therefore be said to be an old-established institution, though it was only in 1856 that the public functionaries administering the funds were first styled Municipal Commissioners. The Act of 1856 was superseded by Act IX of 1865, and this in its turn gave way to Act IX of 1867, which, with a slight amendment effected by Act V of 1871, remained in force until the end of 1878. The present Act, No. V of 1878, came into operation on the 1st January 1879.

Constitution. The Municipality is divided into eight divisions. Under Act IX of 1867 four persons residing within the limits of each division were appointed by Government to be Commissioners for that division. But under Act V of 1878 thirty-two persons are appointed Commissioners, of whom sixteen are required to be elected by the rate-payers and

sixteen are nominated by Government. If the electors fail to return any of the former as required by the Act, the vacancy is filled up by a Government nominee. The Commissioners hold office for three years, subject to removal for misconduct, insolvency, or neglect of duty. Subject to the control of the Commissioners and the Standing Committee the entire executive power is vested in the President, who is appointed by Government and paid from Municipal funds. The two Vice-Presidents, one in charge of public works, conservancy and sanitation, and the other in charge of assessment and collection of taxes and tolls, hold their appointments direct from Government and are removable at their pleasure. A special sanitary officer may be appointed by Government whenever any epidemic or unusual mortality prevails. Subordinate officers and servants thought necessary by the Commissioners for the purposes of the Act are appointed by the President.

Nature of taxation, &c.

The taxes and tolls and payments leviable under the Municipal Act are as follows:—(1) tax on arts, professions, trades, and callings (not being a military profession or calling), and on offices and appointments classified as follows:—

Class	I. B—Persons on salaries ranging from Rs. 5,000 per mensem, Rs. 250 yearly.								
Do.	D.—	Do.	do.	from Rs.	3,000	to Rs.	5,000	do.	„ 150 do.
Do.	II.—	Do.	do.	„	2,000	„	3,000	do.	„ 100 do.
Do.	III.—	Do.	do.	„	1,000	„	2,000	do.	„ 50 do.
Do.	IV.—	Do.	do.	„	750	„	1,000	do.	„ 25 do.
Do.	V.—	Do.	do.	„	500	„	750	do.	„ 15 do.
Do.	VI.—	Do.	do.	„	200	„	500	do.	„ 8 do.
Do.	VII.—	Do.	do.	„	100	„	200	do.	„ 3 do.

Sixty denominations of traders, artizans, &c., are given in the schedule, most of whom are liable to be classified in any one of the above classes according to the discretion of the President subject to appeal in the first place to a Committee of the Commissioners and ultimately to two Magistrates; (2) tax on the salaries of persons exempted from payment of tax under No. 1; this tax was intended to meet the case of military officers exempt from profession tax, but its imposition has been disallowed by Government and it is improbable that the tax will be imposed; (3) tax on houses, buildings and lands, being a rate not exceeding 10 per cent. on the estimated gross annual rent at which they might reasonably be expected to let from year to year; (4) payments for occupation of lands vested in the Commissioners; (5) water tax, being a rate on houses, buildings, and lands not exceeding 4 per cent. of their gross annual rent; the Governor in Council has power to exempt any division or part thereof from water tax; (6) lighting tax, being a rate not exceeding 2 per cent. on all buildings and lands; (7) tax on vehicles on springs and animals varying from 4 annas half-yearly for asses to rupees 10 half-yearly for 4-wheeled carriages drawn by two horses; (8) tax on carts

and other vehicles without springs 4 rupees each yearly; (9) tolls on vehicles and animals entering the municipal limits from 6 pies to 8 annas; (10) tax upon places for the sale of spirituous and intoxicating liquors from rupees 12 to rupees 75 annually.

The above rates and taxes are all in force with the exception of the tax on salaries; the house rate being levied at 10 per cent., water tax at 4 and lighting tax at $1\frac{1}{4}$. Rates and taxes may be recovered by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the defaulter. Any person carrying on his profession or trade without registration is liable, on conviction before a Magistrate, to a penalty not exceeding twice the amount payable for a registration certificate. Appeals against assessments are heard and determined by two Magistrates, who are empowered to state a cause for final decision by the High Court. Under Act IX of 1867 the Town Police were paid from Municipal funds, but the Municipality was relieved of this charge by Act V of 1871, which at the same time extended the application of the Municipal funds to purposes of education, the establishment of hospitals, vaccination, and other works of local public utility. The Municipal Act of 1878 retains these latter charges, and under Act VII of 1878 power is given to the Governor in Council to require Municipalities to contribute 50 per cent. of the Police charges, excepting Marine. The population of nearly 400,000 inhabitants among whom the taxation is distributed are scattered over an area of 27 square miles.

Income and expenditure for eight years.

The following statements show for the past eight years the income, incidence of taxation, expenditure, and other particulars for this Municipality. Previous to 1871-72 the municipal accounts were kept for the calendar year, subsequently for the official year ending 31st March. But in 1879 the calendar year was reverted to. Column 7 in Statement I refers to the taxation authorized by the Act and not to all sources of income:—

TABLE I.

Years.	Population.	Number of Members of Committee.			Total Income from all Sources.	Incidence of Taxation per Head of Population.	Amount of Debt.
		Official.	Nominated.	Total.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
					RS.	RS. A. P.	RS.
1871-72	397,552	9	23	32	5,71,346	1 1 8	10,19,571
1872-73		10	22	32	5,22,407	1 0 6	12,60,000
1873-74		9	23	32	5,91,343	1 0 0	14,28,000
1874-75		12	20	32	5,36,292	1 0 2	14,30,000
1875-76		12	20	32	6,08,218	1 2 3	14,30,000
1876-77		15	17	32	5,97,065	1 3 10	14,30,000
1877-78		18	14	32	6,55,161	1 6 2	14,30,000
Nine months ending 31st December 1878.		17	15		5,82,215	1 3 9	14,30,000

TABLE II.

Years.	Total Expenditure.	Sinking Fund for reduction of Debt for Water-works.
1	2	3
	RS.	RS.
1871-72 ...	5,62,406	13,457
1872-73 ...	5,19,794	10,292
1873-74 ...	5,21,684	13,144
1874-75 ...	5,16,573	19,098
1875-76 ...	5,93,885	27,278
1876-77 ...	5,90,527	25,662
1877-78 ...	6,42,216	28,561
Nine months ending 31st December 1878.	5,08,584	26,095

ECCLESIASTICAL.

Ecclesiastical establishment proper.

The Madras Ecclesiastical Establishment proper consists of a Bishop, an Archdeacon, forty Chaplains (including the Archdeacon), and a Registrar. The Bishop superintends the spiritual work of the Diocese ; holds confirmations ; ordains, licenses, and exercises jurisdiction over the clergy ; visits all the stations at which clergy are located and many of the out-stations, as a rule once in three years ; inspects the registers and other church books ; recommends to Government the appointments and removal of chaplains, reports upon the advisability or otherwise of proposals for new churches, improvements in churches, changes in any of the ecclesiastical arrangements. The Archdeacon attends more particularly to the details of church establishments, church furniture, cemeteries, repairs, budgets ; and communicates with the Government on these subjects. The Chaplains are divided into two classes, senior and junior ; promotion to the senior class being attained upon the completion of ten years' service. Chaplains are required to serve twenty years for a full pension. Seventeen of those years must have been spent in actual service. Smaller pensions are granted on retirement enforced through sickness. Retirement is compulsory on the completion of twenty-five years. There are thirty-four posts in the diocese entitled to the services of Chaplains. One of the Chaplains is appointed by the Bishop to be his Domestic Chaplain. The others are appointed by the Government to the charge of stations. Every Chaplain at a station in which there are European troops, visits the schools and hospitals under stated rules. To several stations are attached out-stations : these are visited periodi-

Church property and churches.

cally by the Chaplain of the station. At every station where there is Government church property two gentlemen appointed by the Government to be Lay Trustees form, with the Chaplain as president, a church committee. The duties of Lay Trustees resemble in some respects those of church wardens. They also conduct divine service in the absence of the Chaplain. There is a code of rules for the guidance of Lay Trustees. The churches for European congregations, are with rare exceptions the property of Government. One of the churches in Madras, is the cathedral of the diocese. Two Chaplains are assigned to it. But there is no Chapter; nor are there any distinctively cathedral officers. Besides the chaplains there are other European and a few Eurasian clergymen. Some of these minister to European congregations who are not entitled to the services of a resident Government Chaplain, and some are Missionaries. The former of these receive their salaries either from one of two Societies for providing additional clergy, or from local contributions, or from both, the Government in all cases allowing a grant-in-aid. The Missionaries, as such, are not connected with Government, but are wholly maintained by two Missionary Societies. Native clergymen, Tamil, Telugu and Malayalim, constitute a third and continually growing class. The Bishop is assisted in the superintendence of Missions and the Native Church by Bishops (now two) consecrated for the purpose. The affairs of the Native Churches, in matters not spiritual, are managed by Councils composed chiefly of Native clergy and laity, and by the committees of the Missionary Societies. The Native Church Councils are of two kinds; the smaller or District Councils, and the larger or Provincial.

Clergy, &c., not on the establishment.

REGISTRATION OF MARRIAGES.

Procedure of Marriage Registrars.

The office of Marriage Registrar was created by Statute 14 and 15 Vict., Cap. XL, entitled an "Act for Marriages in India," which was extended to this Presidency by the Government of India Act No. V of 1852. There have been three repealing Acts since then—Act XXV of 1864, Act V of 1865, and Act XV of 1872, "The Indian Christian Marriage Act," the last named Act being the law now in force. The duties of Marriage Registrars are set forth in Part V of the latter Act. When a marriage is to be solemnized one of the parties gives the Marriage Registrar notice as per Schedule I. On receiving the notice, the Registrar affixes a copy in some "conspicuous place" in his office. If one of the parties is a minor, he sends a copy to each of the other

Marriage Registrars (if any) in the same district for publication. He files all notices received by him and enters a true copy of each in a book called the "Marriage Notice Book," which is open for inspection by the public at all reasonable times without fee. When the party giving notice of the marriage has made the oath required by Section 42 of the Act and requests the issue of the certificate (Schedule II), the Registrar issues under his hand a certificate of such notice having been given and of such oath having been made, provided that there is no lawful impediment; that its issue has not been forbidden by any person authorized in that behalf by the Act; that four days have expired since receipt of notice; and further, when one of the parties is a minor, that fourteen days have expired. In the latter case, if both parties are residing at Madras, and are desirous of being married in less than fourteen days, they may apply by petition to a Judge of the High Court for an order directing the Marriage Registrar to issue his certificate before the expiration of fourteen days. Any person whose consent to the marriage of a minor is necessary may enter a protest against the issue of the Registrar's certificate by writing at any time before its issue the word "forbidden" opposite to the entry of the notice in the "Marriage Notice Book," and subscribing his or her name thereto. Every such person is liable for the costs of all proceedings in relation thereto and for damages, if the grounds of protest be found to be frivolous. When a protest has been entered, the Marriage Registrar withholds the issue of his certificate until satisfied that the protest ought not to obstruct its issue, or until the protest is itself withdrawn by the person who entered it; or the Registrar may himself apply by petition stating all the circumstances of the case and pray for an order and direction of Court. If the person whose consent is necessary is insane, or unjustly withholds consent, the parties interested may petition a Judge of the High Court or of a District Court to examine the matter, and if upon such examination it shall be declared that the marriage is proper, the declaration is as effectual as if the person whose consent was needed had consented to the marriage, and the Registrar issues his certificate. Should, however, a Marriage Registrar himself refuse to issue a certificate the parties concerned may petition as above, and the decision of the Judge of the High Court or of the District Court in the case is final. After the issue of the certificate by a Marriage Registrar, the marriage is not solemnized according to such form and ceremony as the parties think fit to adopt. The ceremony invariably takes place in the presence of two or more credible witnesses, and in a part of the ceremony each of the parties declares that he or she knows of no lawful impediment to the union. When a marriage is not solemnized within two months after receipt of the notice, the notice and the

certificate and all other proceedings thereupon are considered void. After the solemnization of a marriage, the Registrar registers it in a Marriage Registrar's Book (Schedule IV), and also in a certificate attached to the book as a counterfoil. The entries in the Register are signed by the Registrar, by the parties married, and by the two credible witnesses in whose presence the ceremony takes place. The certificate attached to the book is sent by the Registrar to the Secretary to the Local Government. The book itself is kept by the Registrar until it is filled, when it is also sent to the Government. In the Rules published in the *Fort St. George Gazette*, dated 14th March 1874, the Government have, under the provisions of Sections 82 and 83 of the Marriage Act, authorized the levy of certain fees, and have prescribed the manner in which they shall be disposed of.

STATIONERY.

Nature of the Department.

The Government Stationery Office is in charge of a Superintendent with a small establishment. Stationery of all descriptions required for office use and for drawing purposes is issued annually by the department. In addition to this, school books, color boxes, and mathematical instruments are supplied to Army and Regimental schools and Survey classes. The Government Printing Presses are supplied with ink, flannel, and rollers. Bibles and Prayer Books are issued for the use of Churches, Military and Civil Hospitals and to the Drummers of Native Regiments. Theodolites, levelling instruments, compasses, and level and survey books, to the Public Works Department, and ecclesiastical forms are supplied to all Marriage Registrars. The Ordnance Atlas Sheets received from the Surveyor-General are sold to private parties, but supplied free to Government offices. All public offices both in the Presidency and at out-stations are supplied with stationery free of charge, as also are Regimental schools, Veterinary Surgeons, Garrison Instructors, Instructors of Musketry, Military and Civil Hospitals, the Bishop of Madras, and the Senior Chaplain of the Church of Scotland. Stationery is also supplied on payment to the Mysore Commission, Municipal Commissions, Adjutants of Regiments of Infantry, Staff Officers, Wing Officers, and Commandants of Batteries of Artillery, the Principal of the Presidency College, Curator of the Government Book Depôt, and to the Inspector of Normal Schools.

GOVERNMENT PRESS.

Establishment, and nature of work.

The Government Press, including a branch at the Penitentiary, is under charge of a Superintendent assisted by a staff of upwards of 700 persons employed in various printing operations. One of the Under Secretaries to Government acts as Supervisor to the Press, and exercises a general control. With the exception of the Compositors, who are paid by piece-work, all the Press employés receive fixed monthly salaries, and these range from Rupees 2 upwards. The rate of remuneration to the Compositors for their work is 2 annas per 1,000 ens or letters, including composition, distributing, and correcting all proofs but author's, for which latter 2 annas an hour are paid. To facilitate the operations of the Press it is sub-divided into departments, viz., Public, Public Works, Military, Revenue, Revenue Board, Gazette, Book, Job, Vernacular, and Binding, each of which is in charge of a Foreman. In the printing department 16 machines and 39 hand-presses are constantly employed, and the work turned out comprises Government Proceedings, the Proceedings of the Board of Revenue, the Gazette, Vernacular Acts in five languages, Selections from Government Records, monthly returns, annual and other reports, District Manuals, and a large number of forms and miscellaneous job-work for official use in the Public Offices throughout the Presidency. At the Penitentiary branch, where about 95 adult and 51 juvenile prisoners are employed, Land Revenue, Magisterial, Judicial, and other forms, averaging in amount upwards of 22,000,000 during the official year, are turned out for use in the Mofussil.

LAWRENCE ASYLUM PRESS.

Nature of the institution.

The Lawrence Asylum Press in Madras is a quasi Government institution, the general management being entrusted to a Committee appointed by Government, though the persons employed in connection with it are not eligible to pension under the Uncovenanted Service Civil Pension Code. The connection between this Press and the Government depends on the fact that the former is really a part of the Ootacamund Lawrence Asylum institution, the stability of which is ultimately guaranteed by Government, although the necessity for assuming the charge on State funds has not arisen and is not likely to arise. The Press was originally attached to the Madras Military Orphan Asylum, and the latter has been amalgamated with the Lawrence Asylum. The major portion of the work turned out by the

Press is surplus work which cannot be done at the Government Press and would otherwise find its way to private Presses. Twelve lads apprenticed from the Lawrence Asylum are boarded and clothed at the expense of the Press, and any profit accruing is paid over to the Principal of the Lawrence Asylum for the benefit of the school.

DISTRICT PRESSES AND GAZETTES.

District Presses.

District Presses were first established in pursuance of an order of Government passed in 1855. In the previous year the Collector of North Arcot employed a small printing establishment which he worked at his own cost as an experiment. About the same time the Assistant to the Commissioner of Northern Circars set up a small lithographic press of his own to print the ordinary correspondence of his office. The successful working of these presses and their utility being brought to the notice of Government, they ordered that a press should be set up at the Huzoor station of the most important Collectorates, and fifteen districts were shortly afterwards supplied. By March 1859 every district was furnished with its own press, and labor is now greatly economized by the printing of numerous papers, such as puttahs, forms of account, circulars, Proceedings of Government, of the High Court, and of the Board of Revenue, &c., which formerly had to be copied in manuscript. The presses are worked under the orders of the Collectors and managed by a Supervisor or Head Compositor receiving a salary of Rupees 50 per mensem. In 1873-74 Mr. Keys, Superintendent of the Government Press at Madras, was deputed to inspect and report upon the working of the several District Presses. He brought to light several abuses which have been since rectified and prepared a manual for the guidance of the press establishment. The subjoined statement shows the annual value of work done and the receipts and charges during the last ten years:—

Years.	Estimated value of the work done.	Receipts.	Charges.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1866-67	1,56,260	17,975	51,510
1867-68	1,89,126	24,261	54,731
1868-69	2,33,461	26,643	60,724
1869-70	2,28,883	29,292	55,783
1870-71	2,41,291	25,092	57,982
1871-72	2,23,000	18,994	58,905
1872-73	2,33,574	22,169	72,768
1873-74	1,43,028	20,556	67,964
1874-75	1,40,315	19,815	67,117
1875-76	1,43,090	18,830	80,367
1876-77	1,45,492	16,728	62,651
1877-78	1,57,802	11,559	67,340

With the establishment of presses commenced the publication of District Gazettes, which were issued for the first time in 1856-57. The District Gazettes are published in each district fortnightly. As a rule, everything is in diglott. Two regular supplements are published, one the Police Sheet, containing matters of special interest to the Police Department, and the other a sheet containing the Standing Orders of the Board of Revenue. When Acts, Bills or other lengthy papers are published in the Gazette, these are also put into a Supplement, so that they may be filed consecutively. The following are the principal statements published:—the calendar; a statement showing arrival and departure of vessels; the cultivation and rain-fall and price list; demand, collection, balance statement; statement of business in the taluks; salt sales and manufacture statement; statement of exports and imports; vaccination statement; and statement showing the working of the dispensary. The Gazette contains also all orders of a general nature; notice of offences committed; of appointments; promotions; leaves of absence; returns from leave; dismissals; suspensions; punishments; deaths; resignations, &c., among the District servants; abridgments or brief notices of orders of Government or Acts of the Legislatures, and other matters of general or official concernment, such as Rolls of unclaimed sums in Regimental Cash Chests; sales of land and notices of Abkári rents; sale notices, &c. There are also Circulars issued by the Local Authorities when of the nature of Standing Orders; Circular Orders of the Board of Revenue and of the High Court; the result of Criminal trials; lists of stolen property; description of escaped convicts; and offers of reward for their apprehension; changes in postal rules; the progress of the Railway and other public works; the proceedings connected with local exhibitions; advertisements inviting tenders for contracts; notice of the dates of preliminary and other hearings in the Civil Courts; decisions of the Civil Courts, whether for Plaintiff or Defendant; place where the Collector will hold his Cutcherry during the ensuing week, and similar items of intelligence. The advertisements and circulars of the Officers of the other Public Departments are published free of charge. Editorial articles, mere news or correspondence on any subjects, or comments on the proceedings of the Courts or Cutcherries have no place in the Gazettes. Occasionally however accounts of agricultural experiments or notices of improved methods of agriculture are extracted from public records or periodical publications published for general information. Private advertisements are published on payment. The District Gazette is supplied gratis to certain officials and persons, but the subscription for the general public is 2 annas a month. Village servants and officials drawing less than Rupees 25 per mensem are supplied with

District Gazettes.

the Gazette, post free, for a subscription of 1 anna per mensem. Orders applicable to village servants are published as separate supplements to the District Gazette and these are supplied to the village officers *gratis*.

MONEGAR CHOULTRY.

Nature of the institution.

The Monegar Choultry in Madras is an institution which affords shelter, food, and clothing to native poor and infirm persons without reference to caste. It was founded in the year 1808. Besides a Choultry or Pauper Asylum, it contains also an infirmary and a special asylum for foundling and stray children. The institution is supported by public contributions aided by the Government. The management is placed under the supervision of a Committee selected annually by the Government.

TRIPLICANE LUNGHERKHANA.

Nature of the institution.

This is a poor-house of considerable antiquity, and was taken over by the Government from the Carnatic Sirkar in 1857. Charity is dispensed to out-door and in-door paupers to the extent of Rupees 400 monthly, which is the amount of the Government endowment. The institution is managed by the Deputy Commissioner of Police for Madras.

SULPHUR LICENSES.

Nature of arrangements.

Over two hundred and fifty tons of sulphur is annually expended or sold in this Presidency, and dealers are licensed to have in stock over two hundred tons. The sulphur is chiefly used in making gunpowder and fire-works and in blasting operations, and to some extent in bleaching ginger. A little sulphur is employed in medicine, and it has in some instances been used as a disinfectant. The manufacture of sulphur and its traffic are regulated by the Arms and Ammunition Act, No. XI of 1878, under the provisions of which no one can manufacture or deal in sulphur except under a license. Magistrates may be empowered under the Act to grant licenses to sulphur dealers. The premises, books, and stock of licensed sulphur dealers are periodi-

cally examined by the Assistant Magistrates, and in the Presidency town by the Deputy Commissioner of Police; annual returns are submitted by District Magistrates of the number of dealers and the business carried on by them, drawing special attention to new shops opened.

GOVERNMENT WORKHOUSE.

Nature of the institution.

The "Strangers' Home" at Madras, which had existed since 1867 as a private charitable institution, was in 1870 taken over by Government as a Government Workhouse. The institution is now managed by a Governor and a Committee, of which the President is the Commissioner of Police for Madras. It is used exclusively in connection with the Vagrancy Act, No. IX of 1874, for the temporary housing of vagrants according to the provisions of that enactment. The annual budget grant for the expenses of the institution is Rupees 20,000.

MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Money.

There is no separate Mint in Madras. The currency is Imperial and consists in silver of rupees, half and quarter rupees, and double annas; and in copper of single, half, and quarter annas, and single pies. The following are the amounts used in this Presidency for accounts:—

3 Pies	= 1 Paisa or ¼ Anna.
12 Pies	= 1 Anna.
16 Annas	= 1 Rupee.
15 Rupees	= 1 Gold Rupee.
16 Rupees	= 1 Gold Mohur.
1,00,000 Rupees	= 1 Madras Lakh.

The sovereign is a legal tender for 10 Rupees. The nominal value of the Rupee in English money is two shillings. Accounts were formerly kept in Madras in Star Pagodas, Fanams, and Cash, and the practice still prevails in some parts of the Presidency. The values of these coins are as under:—

80 Cash	= 1 Fanam.
42 Fanams	= 1 Star Pagoda.

The Star Pagoda, when current, was made of gold 19½ carats fine, and was nominally worth in English money about 7*s.* 5*d.*

Weights.

The original unit of weight in Southern India was the gold pagoda coin of 52½ grains Troy weights; 32 "Red Seeds" made one pagoda weight, and 10 pagoda weights made 1 pollum. A more stable ponderary unit however, and one still in universal use, is the Tola, a weight which is practically equivalent to the weight of a single silver rupee. The following is the table of weights in use in most Government operations in this Presidency:—

180 Grains	= 1 Tola.
3 Tolas	= 1 Pollum.
40 Pollums	= 1 Viss.
8 Viss	= 1 South Indian Maund.
20 South Indian Maunds	= 1 Barum or Candy.

The following table gives approximately the equivalents in English measures:—

Madras Weights.	Avoirdupois.			Troy.		
	lbs.	oz.	drs.	lbs.	oz.	dwts.
= 1 Tola	0	0	6·582	0	0	7½
3 Tolas = 1 Pollum ...	0	1	3·748	0	1	22½
40 Pollums = 1 Viss ...	3	1	5·942	3	9	0
8 Viss = 1 Maund ...	24	10	15·542	30	0	0

The various maunds or muns used under other Administrations differ from the South Indian maund considerably. In salt measure the following Imperial table is adopted, the maund being equivalent to 82⅔ lbs. Avoirdupois the tola and seer remaining the same:—

80 Tolas = 1 Seer.
40 Seers = 1 Imperial Maund.

The Imperial seer, which it was the object of Act XXXI of 1871 to introduce, (= 2·2046 lbs., or 85·7344 tolas) has not yet been applied to this Presidency.

Linear Measure.

In linear measure the English foot and yard are superseding the native measures, but the latter deserve notice. A table is given below based on a combination of the native measures with the English yard; this is in general use and may be taken as approximately correct with reference to the equivalence of the English and native measures:—

4 Ungulums or Thumbs	= 1 Hand.
3 Hands	= 1 Span.
6 Spans	= 1 Cubit or Moolum.
2 Moolums	= 1 Yard.
2 Yards	= 1 Fathom or Thundum.
2,000 Thundums	= 1 Coss.
4 Coss	= 1 Kadum (10 miles).

The basis of linear measure in the South of India is the moolum given above, which is the distance from the elbow to the tip of the middle finger of a full-sized man.

Square Measure.

In square measure the use of the English Acre is encouraged, but the following table holds its ground, the native Cawny taking the place of the Acre :—

144 Inches	= 1 Square Foot.
2,400 Square Feet	= 1 Mannie or Ground.
24 Mannies	= 1 Cawny.
484 Cawnies	= 1 Square Mile.

The Cawny is in proportion to the English acre as 121 to 160.

Measure of Capacity.

In the greater part of the Presidency there are no actual dry and liquid measures of capacity, these measures depending in reality on the weight of different commodities used in connection with them; thus the seer measure is understood to be a measure which when "heaped" will contain a seer weight of rice. In the neighbourhood of Madras however and in some of the Southern Districts, the ordinary grain measure is a "puddy" which, though variable, does not represent any weight. The following table is used in Government transactions, the ollock being equivalent to $12\frac{1}{2}$ cubic inches :—

8 Ollocks	= 1 Measure or Puddy.
8 Puddies	= 1 Marcal.
400 Marcals	= 1 Garce.

A parrah of chunam consists of 5 marcals. It will be seen that 20 ollocks are equivalent to 1 English Gallon. The Imperial measure of capacity, which it was the object of Act XXXI of 1871 to introduce (= a measure containing one Imperial seer of water at its maximum density, weighed in a vacuum), has not yet been applied to this Presidency. The following table shows in greater detail the exact dimensions of the Madras measures :—

Measures.	Depth and Diameter inside, in Inches and Tenths.	Size for practice, in Inches and Tenths.		Capacity in Cubic Inches.	Weight of Rain-water contained by each Measure, the water being at 80° of Fahrenheit's Thermometer, in lbs. Avoirdupois.
	Cylindric.	Diamr. | Depth. Square. 20×20 | ×10 Cylindric.			lbs. · oz. · drs. · grs.
Parrah	17·2050			4000	144 · 0 · 5 · 0
Marcal	10·0616	10·3	9·6	800	28 · 12 · 13 · 22
½ do.	7·9859	8·2	7·6	400	14 · 6 · 6 · 24
¼ do.	6·3384	6·3	6·4	200	7 · 3 · 3 · 13
Measure (Puddy)...	5·0308	5·0	5·1	100	3 · 9 · 9 · 20
½ do.	3·9930	4·0	4·0	50	1 · 12 · 12 · 23
¼ do.	3·1692	3·2	3·1	25	0 · 14 · 6 · 12
Ollock	2·5154	2·6	2·4	$12\frac{1}{2}$	0 · 7 · 3 · 6
½ do.	1·9965	2·0	2·0	$6\frac{1}{4}$	0 · 3 · 9 · 17
¼ do.	1·5846	1·6	1·6	$3\frac{1}{8}$	0 · 1 · 12 · 22

Comparison of local food measures.

For the purposes of the returns of food prices sent to the Government of India as mentioned in Section IV, a thorough comparison was four years ago made of the local food measures in use, taking the form of a conversion of capacity measures into weight measure. In each locality it was ascertained what was the recognized measure

of capacity used for selling grain and salt, what was the capacity of this measure in cubic inches, and how much weight of ordinary rice it contained in terms of the tola or rupee weight. The ratio between the weight of ordinary rice and that of other grains and of salt having then been arrived at by two independent methods, similar results were established for the other commodities. In establishing the ratio between grains and rice one ratio for the whole Presidency was decided on; in the case of salt however the variations in different districts, owing to reduction of weight by transport to places distant from source of supply and other causes, were so considerable that several ratios had to be taken for the whole Presidency. The Board of Revenue, who made these calculations, are acquainted thereby with the weight of each principal commodity contained in each of the local measures; and when the bi-monthly returns showing the number of measures of each commodity sold for a rupee reach them from the districts, they are in a position to issue tables showing their price lists in terms of a single common weight. At present the unit of weight adopted for the price lists is the seer of 80 tolas.

Stamping Weights and Measures.

A small fee is collected from shopkeepers, grain merchants, and others wishing to have their weights and measures tested and stamped in proof of their being of the proper standard. The fee varies from 4 pies to 6 annas for each measure tested and stamped, and from the proceeds a small establishment is maintained for doing the work. The fee is not collected under any law, but the benefit of the arrangement is appreciated by the people, and many come of their own accord from long distances to have their measures tested and stamped. The receipts and charges up to 1873 were assigned to the general revenues, on the understanding however that the charges should never exceed the receipts, but they were then transferred to Provincial Funds. The receipts and charges usually average Rupees 10,000 and Rupees 5,000 respectively.

PRESIDENCY GAZETTEER, &c.

District Manuals and Presidency Gazetteer.

The Madras scheme of District Manuals and Presidency Gazetteer was inaugurated before the appearance of the scheme for a statistical survey of the Indian empire put forward by the Government of India, and does not exactly tally with it. In the Madras Presidency the different districts produce their own manuals, each at a different time, at a separate cost, and, to a certain extent, on a separate plan. The Presidency Gazetteer is to be a distinct publication, prepared hereafter from these manuals. On the plan adopted for the rest of India, no

separate District Manuals are published, but the Gazetteers or "Statistical Accounts" of each province consist of a series of "District Accounts" placed side by side in one publication; the District Accounts are in this case on one uniform plan, and are prepared in a central office from rough material supplied by the districts, while the cost is confined to that of the central office. The Madras District Manuals thus correspond to the district sections in the Statistical Accounts of each of the other Administrations; the differences above mentioned are however too considerable to admit of their playing the same part in the compilation of the Imperial Gazetteer, and special arrangements will have to be made in Madras in the direction of supplying material for that publication. The following table shows the progress in District Manuals down to the date to which this volume is corrected :—

District.	Editor of the Manual.	Remarks.
1. Bellary	Mr. J. Kelsall, now Acting District and Session Judge, Kistna.	Finished, 20th Nov. 1872.
2. Chingleput ...	Mr. C. S. Crole, now Acting Collector of Salem.	In progress.
3. Coimbatore ...	Mr. T. G. Mackenzie, now on furlough.	Do.
4. Cuddapah ...	Mr. J. D. B. Gribble, now Acting Collector of Cuddapah.	Finished, 5th Nov. 1875.
5. Ganjam ...	Mr. T. J. Maltby, now Acting Sub-Collector of Kistna.	In progress.
6. Godavari ...	Mr. H. Morris, now retired	Finished, 17th Aug. 1878.
7. Kistna ...	Mr. G. D. Leman, now on furlough	In progress.
8. Kurnool ...	Mr. W. M. Thorburn, now Acting Head Assistant to Collector of Godavari.	Do.
9. Madras ...	.....	No Manual is at present contemplated for this district.
10. Madura ...	Mr. J. H. Nelson	Finished, 26th April 1869.
11. Nilgiris ...	Mr. H. B. Grigg	In progress.
12. Malabar ...	Mr. W. Logan, now Collector of Malabar, and about to proceed on 18 months' furlough.	Do.
13. Nellore ...	Mr. J. A. C. Boswell, deceased	Finished, 21st Oct. 1871.
14. North Arcot ...	Mr. A. F. Cox, now Acting Head Assistant to Collector of North Arcot.	In progress.
15. Salem ...	Mr. H. LeFanu, now Acting Sub-Collector of Salem, on 3 months' privilege leave.	Do.
16. South Arcot ...	Mr. J. H. Garstin, now Acting Secretary to Government, Revenue Department.	Finished, 12th June 1878.
17. South Canara ...	Mr. E. E. Spencer, now Acting Head Assistant to Collector of South Canara.	In progress.
18. Tanjore ...	T. Venkasawmy Row, now 1st Assistant, Revenue Secretariat, on leave.	Do.
19. Tinnevelly ...	Mr. A. J. Stuart, now on furlough	Do.
20. Trichinopoly ...	Mr. L. Moore, now on furlough	Finished, 14th Mar. 1879.
21. Vizagapatam ...	Mr. D. F. Carmichael, now Member of Council.	Finished, 10th July 1868.

Official transliteration.

The transliteration of native proper names in the District Manuals is conducted in the main on the system of Sir William Jones as finally authorized by the Government of India for the purposes of the Imperial Gazetteer in February 1870. Sir William Jones' system may be described as the system of spelling according to continental vowel sounds, with an arbitrary transliteration of consonant sounds; being opposed in the former particular to the system of Dr. Gilchrist which proceeded more phonetically in its rendering into English of native vowels, and to the common usage of Europeans, which may be said to be a mixture of the phonetic principle and tradition. The system as authorized by the Government of India for the Imperial Gazetteer

is understood to be arbitrary only as regards the twelve ordinary vowel sounds, leaving the consonant sounds, which vary much in the different languages of India, to be variously represented. In 1859 the Madras Government published an order on this subject, giving practically for official correspondence in general the same instructions as those just mentioned in connection with the Imperial Gazetteer; prescribing, that is to say, a strict transliteration scheme for vowels, leaving consonants to be transcribed at pleasure, and giving complete license as to the spelling of well-known names. It has not hitherto been found convenient to take any steps to enforce this order, but lists have quite recently been published giving the authorised spelling under the scheme of a number of names of places, post offices, railway stations, &c. It is anticipated that this publication will have the effect of introducing a more general adoption of the scheme not only for names of places, but for proper names generally. It may be observed that the Indian transliteration scheme is often confounded with the phonetic systems in vogue in certain quarters in England; whereas they are in fact exact opposites. The English phonetic methods desire to imitate the sound at the expense of the history contained in the ordinary spelling. The transliteration method in India aims at adhering to the historical spelling with a view to avoiding the varieties introduced by imperfect attempts to imitate the sound. In India the written character of the Oriental languages is by almost wholly phonetic, so that strict transliteration in this case brings with it also correct pronunciation; and this is a great argument in its favor. Still it is to be noted that the method of the transliteration scheme prescribed by Government consists in copying the written character, not in imitating the sound.

APPENDIX STATEMENTS.

STATEMENT I.—GOVERNORS OF FORT ST. GEORGE.

[Referred to under the heading "General Form of Administration."]

Names.	Landed in Madras.	Assumed Charge of Office.	Made over Charge.	Embarked for England.	Remarks.
Mr. Aaron Baker ...	.....	——— 1652	.....	.....	Mr. Baker was at first "Agent" for the Settlement of Madras, which was under the jurisdiction of the Presidency of Bantam in Java, from its foundation in 1639 till it was itself created a Presidency in 1653. In 1658 the Settlements in Bengal were subordinated to Madras, and so remained to 1681.
Sir Thomas Chamber...	.....	——— 1659	.....	.....	
Sir Edward Winter ...	.....	——— 1661	Aug. 22, 1668	Jan. 19, 1672	
Mr. George Foxcroft ...	June 1665	Aug. 22, 1668	——— 1670	——— 1670	Three months after his arrival with a commission to supersede Sir E. Winter Mr. Foxcroft was on a charge of disloyalty put into confinement by Sir E. Winter, who resumed office and retained it till the 22nd August 1668, when Mr. Foxcroft was released and reinstated by the Commissioners from England.
Sir William Langhorn, Bart.	——— 1668	——— 1670	Jan. 27, 1678	Jan. 27, 1678	
Mr. Streynsham Master	July 7, 1676	Jan. 27, 1678	July 3, 1681	.....	
Mr. William Gyfford ...	July 3, 1681	July 3, 1681	July 26, 1687	.....	By the Company's Commission, dated 14th November 1681, received 17th July 1682, the Bengal Agency was made a Government "without any subordination to Fort St. George."
Mr. Elihu Yale ...	June 23, 1672	July 25, 1687	Oct. 3, 1692	.....	Mr. Yale also acted during Mr. Gyfford's absence in Bengal from 8th August 1684 to 26th January 1685.
Mr. Nathaniel Higginson.	March 19, 1684	Oct. 3, 1692	July 7, 1698	Feb. 25, 1700	
Mr. Thomas Pitt ...	July 7, 1698	July 7, 1698	Sept. 18, 1709	Oct. 26, 1709	
Mr. Gulston Addison...	.....	Sept. 18, 1709	.....	.....	Died at Madras on the 17th October 1709.
Mr. Edmund Montague	.....	Oct. 17, 1709	Nov. 3, 1709	.....	Acting Governor.
Mr. William Fraser ...	May 31, 1685	Nov. 3, 1709	July 11, 1711	.....	Acting Governor.
Mr. Edward Harrison.	July 11, 1711	July 11, 1711	Jan. 8, 1717	Jan. 8, 1717	
Mr. Joseph Collet ...	Aug. 28, 1716	Jan. 8, 1717	Jan. 18, 1720	Jan. 18, 1720	
Mr. Francis Hastings.	July 16, 1701	Jan. 18, 1720	Oct. 15, 1721	.....	Acting Governor.
Mr. Nathaniel Elwich.	Feb. 25, 1719	Oct. 15, 1721	Jan. 15, 1725	Jan. 17, 1725	
Mr. James Macrae ...	Aug. 30, 1724	Jan. 15, 1725	May 14, 1730	Jan. 21, 1731	
Mr. George Morton Pitt	Dec. 26, 1724	May 14, 1730	Jan. 23, 1735	Jan. 23, 1735	
Mr. Richard Benyon ...	June 28, 1733	Jan. 23, 1735	Jan. 17, 1744	Jan. 17, 1744	
Mr. Nicholas Morse ...	June 25, 1718	Jan. 17, 1744	.....	.....	Madras having been captured by the French on the 10th September 1746, the Government of the Settlement devolved on Mr. John Hinde, the Deputy Governor of Fort St. David.

STATEMENT I.—GOVERNORS OF FORT ST. GEORGE—(*Continued*).

Names.	Landed in Madras.	Assumed Charge of Office.	Made over Charge.	Embarked for England.	Remarks.
Mr. John Hinde ...	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mr. Hinde died at Fort St. David on the 14th April 1747 previous to the receipt of the Court of Directors' Despatch of 24th January 1747 creating Fort St. David the Head Settlement and appointing Mr. Hinde President and Governor.
Mr. Charles Floyer ...	.....	April 16, 1747	.....	.....	The Court's Despatch ordering Mr. Floyer's dismissal from the service was received at Fort St. David on the 6th July 1750.
Mr. Thomas Saunders.	July 14, 1732	Sept. 19, 1750	Jan. 14, 1755	Jan. 14, 1755	The seat of Government was re-established at Madras on the 5th April 1752, four years after its restoration to the English by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
Mr. George Pigot ...	July 26, 1737	Jan. 14, 1755	Nov. 14, 1763	Nov. 14, 1763	
Mr. Robert Palk ...	Oct. 2, 1761	Nov. 14, 1763	Jan. 25, 1767	Jan. 25, 1767	
Mr. Charles Bourchier.	Dec. 30, 1741	Jan. 25, 1767	Jan. 31, 1770	Feb. 8, 1770	
Mr. Josias DuPre ...	June 10, 1752	Jan. 31, 1770	Feb. 2, 1773	Feb. 2, 1773	
Mr. Alexander Wynch.	July 12, 1768	Feb. 2, 1773	Dec. 11, 1775	Feb. 15, 1776	
Lord Pigot	Dec. 9, 1775	Dec. 11, 1775	.....	.....	Governor for second time. By order of Mr. George Stratton and the majority of Council was placed under arrest and detained at St. Thomas' Mount on the 24th August 1776. He was allowed to return to the Madras Garden House on the 28th April for change of air, and died there on the 10th May 1777.
Mr. George Stratton ...	June 17, 1751	Aug. 23, 1776	Aug. 31, 1777	.....	Suspended from the service.
Mr. John Whitehill ...	Aug. 31, 1777	Aug. 31, 1777	Feb. 8, 1778	.....	Acting Governor.
Sir Thomas Rumbold...	Feb. 8, 1778	Feb. 8, 1778	April 6, 1780	April 6, 1780	
Mr. John Whitehill ...	Aug. 31, 1777	April 6, 1780	Nov. 8, 1780	.....	Acting Governor second time. Suspended by the Governor-General and Council, under Section IX of the Regulating Act.
Mr. Charles Smith ...	July 11, 1753	Nov. 8, 1780	June 22, 1781	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Macartney ...	June 22, 1781	June 22, 1781	June 8, 1785	.....	Embarked for the Northern Ports and Bengal on the 4th June 1785, and resigned from Vizagapatam by letter.
Mr. Alexander Davidson	Sept. 8, 1760	June 18, 1785	April 6, 1786	.....	Acting Governor.
Sir Archibald Campbell. K.B.	April 6, 1786	April 6, 1786	Feb. 7, 1789	Feb. 7, 1789	
Mr. John Hollond ...	July 26, 1760	Feb. 7, 1789	Feb. 13, 1790	Feb. 13, 1790	Acting Governor.
Mr. Edward Hollond.	June 5, 1769	Feb. 13, 1790	Feb. 20, 1790	.....	Acting Governor.
Major-General William Medows.	Feb. 20, 1790	Feb. 20, 1790	Aug. 1, 1792	Aug. 1, 1792	

STATEMENT I.—GOVERNORS OF FORT ST. GEORGE—(*Continued*).

Names.	Landed in Madras.	Assumed Charge of Office.	Made over Charge.	Embarked for England.	Remarks.
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	Oct. 15, 1790	Aug. 1, 1792	Sept. 7, 1794	Sept. 29, 1794	
Lord Hobart	Sept. 7, 1794	Sept. 7, 1794	Feb. 20, 1798	Feb. 20, 1798	
Lieut.-General George Harris, Commander-in-Chief.	March 1797	Feb. 21, 1798	Aug. 21, 1798	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Clive	Aug. 21, 1798	Aug. 21, 1798	Aug. 30, 1803	Sept. 12, 1803	
Lord William Bentinck	Aug. 30, 1803	Aug. 30, 1803	Sept. 11, 1807	Sept. 27, 1807	
Mr. William Petrie ...	Jan. 23, 1765	Sept. 11, 1807	Dec. 24, 1807	.....	Acting Governor.
Sir George Hilaro Barlow, Bart., K.B.	Dec. 24, 1807	Dec. 24, 1807	May 21, 1813	Aug. 26, 1813	
Lieut.-Genl. The Hon. John Abercromby.	March 6, 1813	May 21, 1813	Sept. 16, 1814	Oct. 2, 1814	Came out as Commander-in-Chief and temporary Governor.
The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot.	Sept. 16, 1814	Sept. 16, 1814	June 10, 1820	June 26, 1820	
Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.C.B.	June 10, 1820	June 10, 1820	.....	.....	Died at Pattikonda in the Bellary District on the 6th July 1827.
Mr. Henry Sulivan Græme.	Feb. 3, 1798	July 10, 1827	Oct. 18, 1827	.....	Acting Governor.
Mr. Stephen Rumbold Lushington.	Oct. 18, 1827	Oct. 18, 1827	Oct. 25, 1832	Oct. 28, 1832	
Sir Frederick Adam, K.C.B.	Oct. 25, 1832	Oct. 25, 1832	March 4, 1837	March 4, 1837	
Mr. George Edward Russell.	Aug. 29, 1803	March 4, 1837	March 6, 1837	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H.	March 6, 1837	March 6, 1837	Sept. 24, 1842	.....	Left the Presidency on the 29th September 1842 for Bangalore and Nilgiri Hills *en route* to Europe.
Marquis of Tweeddale, K.T. and C.B.	Sept. 24, 1842	Sept. 24, 1842	Feb. 23, 1848	Feb. 23, 1848	Was also Commander-in-Chief.
Mr. Henry Dickinson.	July 5, 1809	Feb. 23, 1848	April 7, 1848	.....	Acting Governor.
Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart, G.C.B.	April 7, 1848	April 7, 1848	April 24, 1854	April 24, 1854	
Mr. Daniel Eliott ...	Aug. 3, 1817	April 24, 1854	April 28, 1854	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Harris	April 28, 1854	April 28, 1854	March 28, 1859	March 31, 1859	
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B.	March 28, 1859	March 28, 1859	June 8, 1860	June 24, 1860	
Mr. William Ambrose Morehead.	Oct. 16, 1825	June 8, 1860	July 5, 1860	.....	Acting Governor first time.
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G.	July 5, 1860	July 5, 1860	.....	.....	Died at Madras on the 2nd August 1860.
Mr. William Ambrose Morehead.	Oct. 16, 1825	Aug. 4, 1860	Feb. 18, 1861	.....	Acting Governor second time.
Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B.	Feb. 18, 1861	Feb. 18, 1861	March 27, 1866	March 28, 1866	Acted as Viceroy and Governor-General of India from 2nd December 1863 to 12th January 1864.
Mr. Edward Maltby ...	Sept. 9, 1829	Nov. 26, 1863	Jan. 18, 1864	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, K.T.	March 27, 1866	March 27, 1866	Feb. 19, 1872	.....	Embarked for Calcutta on the 19th February for the purpose of assuming temporarily the office of Viceroy and Governor-General of India on Earl of Mayo's death.
Mr. Alexander John Arbuthnot, C.S.I.	Sept. 21, 1842	Feb. 19, 1872	May 15, 1872	.....	Acting Governor.
Lord Hobart	May 15, 1872	May 15, 1872	.....	.....	Died at Madras on the 27th April 1875.
Mr. William Rose Robinson, C.S.I.	Sept. 21, 1842	April 29, 1875	Nov. 23, 1875	.....	Acting Governor.
The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos.	Nov. 23, 1875	Nov. 23, 1875	.....	.....	

STATEMENT II.—SCALE OF CIVIL ALLOWANCES.

[Referred to under the heading "General Form of Administration."]

	Monthly. Rs.	A.	P.
Governor	10,666	10	8
Chief Justice	5,000	0	0
Bishop	2,133	5	4
Member of Council	5,333	5	4
Puisne Judges	3,750	0	0
Chief Secretary to Government	3,750	0	0
Under do. do.	1,050	0	0
Secretary to Government, in the Revenue Department	3,125	0	0
Under Secretary to Government in the Revenue Department	1,000	0	0
Secretary to Government, P. W. Department	2,250	0	0
Joint Secretary to Government in the Irrigation Department	1,200	0	0
Secretary to Government, Military Department	2,500	0	0
Assistant Secretary, Legislative and Judicial Department	800	0	0
Private Secretary to the Governor	1,500	0	0
Accountant-General and Commissioner, Paper Currency	3,000	0	0
Deputy Accountant-General	1,000 to 1,500	0	0
Assistant do.	800 to 1,000	0	0
Assistant to the Accountant-General	400 to 600	0	0
Assistant to Deputy Commissioner of Paper Currency	100	0	0
Secretary to the Committee for the Examination of Assistants	100	0	0
Secretary to the Commissioner for the U. C. S. Examination	350	0	0
Astronomer and Meteorological Superintendent	1,050	0	0
Resident of Travancore	2,800	0	0
Assistant do.	600	0	0
Consulting Engineer for Railways	2,000	0	0
Deputy to do.	600	0	0
Consulting Engineer, Irrigation and Canal Company	1,000	0	0
Government Agent, Chepak	525	0	0
Translators. Tamil, Telugu, and Persian and Hindustani each	300	0	0
Translators. Canarese and Malayalam each	250	0	0
Superintendent of Central Museum	300	0	0
Do. of Government Cinchona Plantations	500	0	0
Registrar of Diocese and Archdeaconry	213	5	4
Marriage Registrar for the Town of Madras	50	0	0
Senior Chaplain (With Rs. 130 house-rent when doing duty at Presidency)	800	0	0
Junior do. (With Rs. 130 house-rent when doing duty at Presidency)	500	0	0
Postmaster-General	1,500 to 1,750	0	0
Inspecting Postmaster	700	0	0
Postmaster, Madras	600 to 900	0	0
Director of Public Instruction	2,000 to 2,250	0	0
Inspectors of Schools and Principals and Professors of Colleges. 1st Class	1,000 to 1,250	0	0
Inspectors of Schools and Principals and Professors of Colleges. 2nd do.	800 to 1,000	0	0
Inspectors of Schools and Principals and Professors of Colleges. 3rd do.	700 to 800	0	0
Inspectors of Schools and Principals and Professors of Colleges. 4th do.	500 to 700	0	0
Inspector of 4th Class	600 to 700	0	0
Assistant Professor of English and Mathematics	350	0	0
Chemical Examiner and Professor of Chemistry (*a*)	1,250	0	0
Registrar, Madras University	300	0	0
Principal, Medical College, and Physician, General Hospital	1,600	0	0
Principal, Normal School	600	0	0
Do. Civil Engineering College (*b*)	600	0	0
Head Master, Provincial School	500	0	0
Superintendent, School of Arts	500	0	0
District Engineer	600 and 700	0	0
1st Assistant Engineer	300	0	0
2nd do. do.	150	0	0
Inspector-General of Registration	1,500	0	0
Registrar of Assurances, Madras	400	0	0
Do. of High Court, Appellate Side	1,600	0	0
Deputy do. do.	700	0	0
Advocate-General (*c*)	2,187	8	0
Solicitor	1,225	0	0
Administrator-General	300	0	0
Government Pleader	500	0	0
Registrar, High Court, Original Side	1,500	0	0
Deputy do. do. (*d*)	600	0	0
Law Reporter do.	400	0	0
Sheriff	898	0	0
Clerk of the Crown and Crown Prosecutor	800	0	0
Deputy Clerk of the Crown	175	0	0
Judge's Clerk	550	0	0
Coroner (*e*)	350	0	0
1st Judge, Court of Small Causes, Madras	2,000	0	0
2nd Do. do. do.	1,000	0	0
Clerk of do. do. and 4th Judge	500	0	0
Assistant do. and Cashier do.	300	0	0
Inspector-General of Madras Police	2,500	0	0
Assistant to do. do.	900	0	0
Deputy Inspector-General	1,200	0	0
Superintendent of Police, 1st, 2nd and 3rd Classes 700, 800 and	1,000	0	0
Assistant do.	500	0	0
Inspector-General of Jails	1,833	5	4
Superintendent of Central Jails, 1st and 2nd Classes 550 to 700 and 700 to	950	0	0
Commissioner of Police, Madras	1,500	0	0
1 Deputy do.	750	0	0
1 do. do.	500	0	0
Magistrate of Police, Madras, 800, 1,000 and	1,200	0	0
Cantonment Magistrate	700	0	0
District and Session Judge	2,333	5	4
Subordinate Judge	500	0	0
District Munsifs. 1st, 2nd and 3rd Classes 200, 250 &	300	0	0
First Member, Board of Revenue	4,000	0	0
Second Member	3,408	5	4
Third do.	3,016	10	8
Secretary	2,000	0	0
Sub-Secretary	1,500	0	0
Deputy Collector of Sea Customs	700	0	0
Appraiser	500	0	0
Do. Assistant	300	0	0
Deputy Collectors, 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th Classes 250, 350, 500 and	600	0	0
Sanitary Commissioner	2,000	0	0
Health Officer (*f*)	800	0	0
Curator of Government Books and Registrar of Books (*g*)	200	0	0
Director of Revenue Settlement (*i*)	2,837	8	0
Deputy do. do. (*i*) 700 and	1,200	0	0
Assistant do. 1st and 2nd Classes, 325 and	425	0	0
Commissioner of Salt Revenue (*h*) 2,000 to	2,500	0	0
Dy. do. do. do. (*i*) 1,200 to	1400	0	0
Personal Assistant to do.	500	0	0

	Civil.	Military.		
Superintendent, Revenue Survey	1,500	1,800	0	0
Dy. do. do. 1st Class	1,100	1,400	0	0
Do. do. do. 2nd do.	750	1,200	0	0
Assistant do. do. 1st do.	550	900	0	0
Do. do. do. 2nd do.	425	600	0	0
Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery	1,000		0	0
Inspector of Forests	1,400		0	0
Deputy do. 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th Classes 250, 350, 500 and	700		0	0
Probationer	200		0	0
Collector and Agent of Ganjam or Vizagapatam	2,500		0	0
Do. do. of Tanjore (*i*)	2,583		5	4
Collector (*i*)	2,333		5	4
Commissioner, Nilgiri (*i*)	2,000		0	0
Sub and Principal Assistant (*i*)	1,166		10	8

(*a*) Gets house-rent Rupees 125.
(*b*) Present incumbent draws pay of rank Rupees 1,002-4 in addition.
(*c*) Gets office allowance of Rupees 115.
(*d*) Present incumbent draws personal allowance of Rupees 200 in addition.
(*e*) Gets palanquin allowance of Rupees 80.
(*f*) Gets Rupees 100 in addition for charge of Lock Hospital.
(*g*) Present incumbent draws office allowance of Rupees 65 and commission at 7½ per cent. on the sale of books.
(*h*) With a fixed travelling allowance of Rupees 250.
(*i*) With a fixed tentage of Rupees 87-8-0.

STATEMENT II—SCALE OF CIVIL ALLOWANCES—(*Continued*).

	Monthly. RS. A. P.
Head, Senior and Special Assistant and Assistant Commissioner (*a*)	733 5 4
Assistant Collector (Passed) (*a*)	525 0 0
Master Attendant and Registrar of Shipping, Madras	1,500 0 0
Deputy Master Attendant, Superintendent, Mercantile Marine Office, Marine Storekeeper and Conservator of the Port ...	700 0 0
First Assistant Master Attendant, &c. ...	650 0 0
Second Assistant Master Attendant, Surveyor of Shipping to Government and Government Emigration, Surveyor	350 0 0
Pier Master	225 0 0

		Monthly. RS. A. P.
Superintendent, Diving Bell		150 0 0
Port Officer and Superintendent, Pearl Banks, Tuticorin		500 0 0
Port Officers.	Cochin, Cocanada and Calicut, each	350 0 0
	Negapatam and Gopaulpore ...	300 0 0
	Bimlipatam, Masulipatam, Vizagapatam and Paumben, each.	200 0 0
Protector of Emigrants		250 0 0
Consular Agent, Pondicherry		250 0 0
Do. Karikal		200 0 0
Medical Inspector of Emigrants		200 0 0

			Batta. RS. A. P. per diem.	Mileage. RS. A. P. per mile.
Judges of Small Cause Court			4 0 0	0 8 0
First and Second Class Deputy Collectors and Salt Deputy Collectors			3 0 0	
Third and Fourth Class do.			2 0 0	
Huzur, Revenue and Settlement Establishments.	Servants below 8 rupees per diem		0 1 0	
	Do. above 8 ,, and below 15 rupees		0 2 0	
	Do. 15 ,, do. 25 ,, ...		0 4 0	
	Do. 25 ,, do. 50 ,, ...		0 8 0	
	Do. 50 ,, do. 100 ,, ...		0 12 0	
	Do. 100 ,, do. 150 ,, ...		1 0 0	
	Do. 150 ,, do. 200 ,, ...		1 4 0	
	Do. 200 ,, do. 250 ,, ...		1 8 0	
	Do. 250 ,, and upwards (as a Deputy Collector)		3 0 0 2 0 0	
	Peons and Deloyets		0 1 0	
	Duffadars and Moochies		0 2 0	
Servants on the Establishment of Director, Revenue Settlement		Those receiving 40 rupees and upwards.	3-10th salary.	0 4 0
Do. do. of Revenue Survey				
Do. do. of Sanitary Commissioner ...				
Do. do. of the Inspector General of Madras Police		Do. not less than that sum.	...	0 2 0
Do. do. of Consulting Engineer, Railways				
Do. do. of Consulting Engineer, Irrigation, &c., Works				
Servants of Small Cause Court drawing Rupees 20 and upwards			3-10th salary.	0 4 0
Those less than that sum			Do.	0 2 0
Head Moochies and Moochies			0 2 0	
Peons and Sweepers			0 1 0	
Servants holding *executive* appointments proceeding to join their stations—				
When travelling by land in the ordinary way			...	0 4 0
Do. by railroad			...	0 1 6
Do. by sea,* actual and reasonable passage-money in case of a private vessel, or a free passage on a Government vessel.				

(*a*) With a fixed tentage of Rupees 42 and house-rent Rupees 35.

Servants holding *ministerial* appointments of a salary of 50 rupees and above:—

When travelling on duty by railroad, 2nd Class fare, and the difference, if any, in excess between it and the daily batta that would otherwise have been drawn.

Servants holding *ministerial* appointments of a salary less than 50 rupees, 3rd Class fare and batta.

When travelling by sea, as for Executive officers.

Peons, &c., proceeding by railroad, *bonâ fide* fare.

* Deputy Collectors are allowed a cabin passage.

STATEMENT III.—GENERAL LIST OF OFFICIAL ORDER OF PRECEDENCE IN MADRAS.

[Referred to under the heading "General Form of Administration."]

2. The Governor.
10. ,, Commander-in-Chief.
12. ,, Chief Justice.
13. ,, Bishop.
14. ,, Members of Council.
16. ,, Puisne Judges of the High Court.
17. Military Officers above the rank of Major-General.
22. Additional Members of Council, when assembled to make Laws and Regulations.
23. The Chief Secretary to Government.
25. ,, Vice-Chancellor of the University.

First Class.

26. Civilians of thirty-one years' standing and Major-Generals.
28. The Advocate-General.
29. ,, Members of the Board of Revenue.
33. ,, Resident in Travancore within his charge.
34. Secretaries to Government.
36. Chief Engineers, First Class.
37. The Archdeacon.
38. Brigadiers-General.

Second Class.

39. Civilians of twenty-three years' standing and Colonels.
42. The Resident in Travancore outside his charge.
50. ,, Director of Public Instruction.
51. ,, Accountant-General.
52. ,, Inspector-General of Police.
53. ,, Director of Revenue Settlement and Superintendent of Revenue Survey.
55. Chief Engineers, Second and Third Classes.
56. Judges, Collectors, and President of the Madras Municipality (within their respective charges).
57. The Commissioner of Salt Revenue.

Third Class.

58. Civilians of eighteen years' standing and Lieutenant-Colonels.
61. The Private Secretary to the Governor.
63. ,, Administrator-General.
64. ,, Inspector-General of Jails and Registration.
,, Sanitary Commissioner.
,, Conservator of Forests.
,, Postmaster-General.
68. Senior Chaplains.
70. The Master Attendant.
71. The Sheriff (within his charge).
72. ,, Commissioner of Police.
,, Deputy Accountant-General.
,, Deputy Inspectors-General of Police.
Deputy Superintendents of Survey, First Grade.
Educational Department Officers, First Grade.
The Examiner of Accounts, Public Works Department.
,, First Judge, Small Cause Court.
,, Government Astronomer.
Superintending Engineers.

Fourth Class.

73. Civilians of twelve years' standing and Majors.
75. The Government Solicitor.
77. Deputy Directors of Revenue Settlements.
Deputy Superintendents of Surveys.
Educational Department Officers, Second Grade.
Executive Engineers, Public Works Department, First Grade.
The Judges of the Small Cause Court.
,, Presidency Magistrates.
,, Registrars of the High Court.
,, Superintendent of Stamps.
,, Superintendent of Telegraphs.

Remarks.

Officers included in the same number will take precedence among themselves according to the date of entry into that number.

2. An officer holding more than one position in the table is entitled to the highest position which he holds.

3. Officers officiating in any number rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

4. All ladies to take place according to the rank assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and ladies having independent rank not below that of the daughter of a Baron. Such ladies rank immediately after the wives of Members of Council.

5. Medical Officers rank as follows:—
Surgeon-General with Major-General according to date of commission; Deputy Surgeon-General with Colonel; Surgeon-Major of 20 years' service with "Lieutenant-Colonel," but junior of that rank; Surgeon-Major with Major; Surgeon after six years' service with Captain; Surgeon under six years' service with Lieutenant.

STATEMENT IV.—SALUTES.

[*Referred to under the heading of "General Form of Administration."*]

TABLE OF SALUTES TO EUROPEAN FUNCTIONARIES APPLICABLE TO THE TERRITORIES UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

	Guns.
Viceroy and Governor-General of India—By the Forts and Batteries within the Indian Territories and Seas, and on being fallen in with by, or visiting, any of Her Majesty's Ships within those limits	31
Ambassadors—By Her Majesty's Forts and Batteries within the Indian Territories, and also on visiting, embarking on board of, or disembarking from, any of Her Majesty's Ships within the Indian Seas	19
Governors of Presidencies ... ... The President of the Council of India ... ... Governor-General of the Portuguese Settlement in India ... Governor of Pondicherry ... ... — By the Forts and Batteries within the Indian Territories and Seas, and by Her Majesty's Ships within those limits, each	17
Governors of Her Majesty's Colonies—The same within jurisdiction, or when on duty elsewhere	17
Lieutenant-Governors of Provinces in India—The same within jurisdiction, or when on duty elsewhere	15
Commanders-in-Chief—According to Military rank, with two guns more than specified below, in the Scale for Rank (the same within Indian Territories and Seas).	
Commander-in-Chief of Her Majesty's Naval Forces—According to Naval rank with two guns more than specified below, in the Scale for Rank (the same within Indian Territories and Seas.)	
Provincial Commander-in-Chief—According to Military rank, with two guns more than specified below, in the Scale for Rank (within his own Presidency only).	
Generals and Admirals, or their Flags—The same within Indian Territories and Seas	15
Members of Council—Forts and Batteries and Her Majesty's Ships within their respective Presidencies	15
Commander-in-Chief, Indian Navy—According to Naval rank, with two guns more than specified below, in the Scale for Rank (the same within Indian Territories and Seas).	
Plenipotentiaries and Envoys—The same within the precincts of the Territories to which he is accredited ...	15
Lieutenant-Governors of Her Majesty's Colonies—The same within jurisdiction, or when on duty elsewhere ...	15
Vice-Admirals and Lieutenant-Generals, or their Flags—The same within Indian Territories and Seas	13
Agents to the Governor-General—The same within Indian Territories and Seas, or within jurisdiction only, or when on duty elsewhere	13
Residents ... ... Chief Commissioners of Provinces and Commissioners ... ... — The same within jurisdiction or when on duty elsewhere, each.	13
Rear-Admirals and Major-Generals, or their Flags—The same within Indian Territories and Seas	11
Political Agents and Charges d'Affaires—Forts, Batteries, and Her Majesty's Ships within the precincts of the Territories to which he is accredited	11
Commodores of the First Class and Brigadier-Generals—The same within limits of Command	9
The Portuguese Governor of Damaun—The same within Indian Territories and Seas	9
The Governor of Dew	9
Her Majesty's Ships not carrying Broad Pendant (return salute only)	7
Any other Ship—Gun for gun.	
Officers inferior to Brigadier-Generals, who command Divisions of the Army, District Field Forces on or beyond the British Frontier, or Garrisons with a permanent Staff, to receive in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay a salute and honors of the next superior Army rank from their own Garrison Forces, &c.	
Note.—The Viceroy and Governor-General of India to have power, in cases in which he may deem it expedient to authorize salutes, to issue such local regulations for the guidance of the authorities in Indian limits with respect to Civil or Military Officers holding positions or commands not included in the above table.	

TABLE OF SALUTES ON ANNIVERSARIES OR SPECIAL OCCASIONS.

Anniversaries.

The Queen's Birth-day ... ... Empress of India, assumption ... ... — To be fired at all stations where there are guns, each.	101

Special Occasions.

Births of children of the reigning Sovereign ... ... Victories of the British Arms ... ... Reading of all Proclamations ... ... — At the Presidencies only, each ...	21

Funeral Honors.

Minute guns to be fired at the funerals of Crowned Heads, and at the funerals of Functionaries who were entitled to salutes, the same number of Minute guns only to be fired as they were entitled to as Salutes, when living.

Minute guns equal in number to the years of the deceased not to be fired on any occasion unless by special order of the Governor-General in Council.

TIME GUNS.

Time guns to be fired at midday and evenings will be allowed as follows:—

I. At all stations where there is a Field or Garrison Battery of Artillery.

II. At all stations where there is a force equal to two Regiments, although there may be no Artillery, provided the force includes not less than a wing of a British Regiment.

III. Morning guns will be fired on Sundays and on such days as there may be a general assembly of the troops, the time being notified in Station Orders.

STATEMENT IV.—SALUTES—(*Continued*).

REVISED LIST OF SALUTES TO NATIVE PRINCES AND CHIEFS.

Names.	Guns.
The Gaekwar of Baroda	21
,, Nizam of Hyderabad	21
,, Maharaja of Mysore	21
,, Begum (or Nawab) of Bhopal	19
,, Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior	19
,, Maharaja Holkar of Indore	19
,, Maharaja of Jammu and Cashmere	19
,, Khan of Khelat	19
,, Raja of Kolhapur	19
,, Maharana of Meywar (Udaipur)	19
,, Maharaja of Travancore	19
,, Nawab of Bhawalpore	17
,, Maharaja of Burtpore	17
,, Maharaja of Bikanir	17
,, Maharao Raja of Bundi	17
,, Rajah of Cochin	17
,, Maharaja of Jeypore	17
,, Maharaja of Karauli	17
,, Maharao of Kotah	17
,, Rao of Kutch	17
,, Maharaja of Marwar (Jodhpur)	17
,, Maharaja of Pattiala	17
,, Maharaja of Rewah	17
,, Maharao Raja of Alwar	15
Senior Raja of Dewas	15
Junior Raja of Dewas	15
The Maharaja of Dhar	15
,, Rana of Dholpur	15
,, Maharawul of Dungarpur	15
,, Maharaja of Dattia	15
,, Maharaja of Edur	15
,, Maharawul of Jessalmir	15
,, Maharaj Rana of Jhallawar	15
Mir Ali Murad Khan of Khairpur	15
The Maharaja of Kishengarh	15
,, Raja of Partabgarh	15
,, Rao of Serohi	15
,, Maharaja of Sikkim	15
,, Maharaja of Urcha (Tehri)	15
,, Maharaja of Benares	13
,, Nawab of Jaurah	13
,, Raja of Kuch Behar	13
,, Nawab of Rampur	13
,, Raja of Rutlam	13
,, Raja of Tipperah	13

Names.	Guns.
The Maharaja of Ajeygarh	11
,, Maharawul of Banswara	11
,, Nawab of Boani	11
,, Thakur of Bhaunagar	11
,, Maharaja of Bijawar	11
,, Nawab of Cambay	11
,, Maharaja of Chirkari	11
,, Raja of Chamba	11
,, Raja of Chatterpur	11
,, Raj Sahib of Drangdra	11
,, Raja of Faridkot	11
,, Raja of Jhabu	11
,, Raja of Jhind	11
,, Nawab of Junagarh	11
,, Raja of Kahlur (Bilaspur)	11
,, Raja of Kapurthalla	11
,, Raja of Mandi	11
,, Raja of Nabha	11
,, Jam of Nauanagarh	11
,, Raja of Narsingarh	11
,, Dewan of Pahlanpur	11
,, Rana of Porbandar	11
,, Maharaja of Panna	11
,, Nawab of Radhanpur	11
,, Newab of Rajgarh	11
,, Raja of Rajpipla	11
,, Raja of Sitamau	11
,, Raja of Sillana	11
,, Raja of Sirmur (Nahan)	11
,, Raja of Suket	11
,, Maharaja of Sampthar	11
,, Nawab of Tonk	11
,, Rana of Alirajpur	9
,, Babee of Balasinor	9
,, Raja of Baria	9
,, Rana of Barwani	9
,, Raja of Chota Udaipur	9
,, Sultan of Fudhli	9
,, Sultan of Lahej	9
,, Rana of Lunawarra	9
,, Nawab of Maler Kotla	9
,, Raja of Nagode	9
,, Sir Desai of Sawant Wari	9
,, Raja of Sonth	9

LIST OF PERSONAL SALUTES.

Names.	Guns.
H. H. Maharaja Dhuleep Sing, G.C.S.I.	21
H. H. Jayaji Rao Scindia Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Gwalior	21
H. H. Tukaji Rao Holkar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Indore	21
H. H. Sewae Ram Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Jeypore	21
H. H. Rambir Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Jammu and Cashmere	21
H. H. Sri Rama Varma, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Travancore	21
H. H. Sajjan Singh, Maharana of Udaipur (Meywar)	21
H. H. Nawab Mansur Ali Khan, Nawab Nazim of Bengal	19
H. H. Jaswant Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Jodhpur	19
Maharaja Sir Jang Bahadur, G.C.B. and G.C.S.I., Prime Minister of Nepaul	19
H. H. Raghuraj Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Rewah	19
H. H. Nawab Alijah Amir-ul-Mulk, Consort of Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal	17
Nawab Sir Salar Jung Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Minister of Hyderabad	17
Nawab Amir-i-Kabir, Shams-ul-Umra Bahadur, Minister of Hyderabad	17
H. H. Prithi Sing Bahadur, Maharaja of Kishengarh	17
H. H. Mahammad Ibrahim Khan Bahadur, Nawab of Tonk	17
H. H. Mohindar Partab Singh Bahadur, Maharaja of Urcha (Tehri)	17
H. H. Prince Azim Jah Rahirud-daulah Bahadur of Arcot	15
H. H. Takht Singji, Thakur of Bhaungar	15
Her Highness Qudsia Begum of Drangdra. H. H. Man Singji Raj Sahib of Bhopal	15
H. H. Mohabaat Khan, K.C.S.I., Nawab of Junagarh	15
H. H. Shri Wibhaji, Jam of Nauangar	15
H. H. Mahammad Kalb Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Nawab of Rampur	15
H. H. Maharaja Adhiraji Mehtab Chand Bahadur of Burdwan	13
H. H. Raghbir Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., Raja of Jhind	13
H. H. Hira Singh Bahadur, Raja of Nabha	13
H. H. Sir Rudr Partap Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., Maharaja of Panna	13
Her Highness Princess Vijaya Mehemi Mukta Boyi Amonani Raja Sahib of Tanjore	13

STATEMENT IV.—SALUTES—(*Continued*).

LIST OF PERSONAL SALUTES—(*Continued*).

Names.	Guns
H. H. Maharaja Mirza Viziaram Gajapatty Raj Mania Sultan Bahadur, K.C.S.I., of Vizianagram ...	13
Omar bin Sallah bin Muhammad, Nukeeb of Maculla	12
Awadh bin Omar Alkayati, Jemadar of Shahar	12
Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur of Maler Kotla	11
Waghji Thakur Sahib of Morvi	11
H. H. Partab Sha, Raja of Tehri	11
Shri Naraindeoji Ramdeoji, Maharawal of Bansda	9
Raghbi Dyal, Raja of Birenda	9
Maharaja Sir Dig Bijai Singh of Bulrampur	9
Shri Gulab Singji Amar Singji, Maharawal of Dharmpur	9
Jai Singji, Thakur Sahib of Dhrol	9
Bhagwat Singji, Thakur Sahib of Gondal	9
Sidi Ibrahim Khan, Nawab of Janjira	9
Udit Pertap Deo, Raja of Kharond	9
Amar Sing Bahadur Rao of Kilchipur	9
Jaswant Singji, Thakur Sahib of Limri	9
Raghbir Singh, Raja of Myhere	9
Sur Singji, Thakur Sahib of Palitana	9
Banoji, Thakur Sahib of Rajkot	9
The Sultan of Socotra	9
Sidi Abdul Kadir Mahammad Yacub Khan, Nawab of Suchin	9
Dajiraj, Thakur Sahib of Wadwan	9
Band Singji, Raj Sahib of Wankanir	9

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

[*Referred to under the heading "Administration of the Land."*]

Taluk.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		BELLARY DISTRICT.			
1	Sundoor	Vital Row Ghorpaday	Vital Row, Saib, Rajah of Sundoor	Sundoor is an independent State and pays no peishcush.	He styles himself in official correspondence Rajah Vital Row Hindoo Row-Ghorpaday Mavamala, cutmadar, Sainaputty of Sundoor.
		CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT.			
	Chunampet	Sattayappa Moothoosawmy Mudaliar; Vada Chell Mudaliar.	.....	RS. A. P. 1,651 15 11	
	Cheyur	Cuddalore Tyagaroya Moothoosawmy Mudaliar; Thodanthar Vythyanatha Mudaliar; Peria Murugappa Ramasawmy Mudaliar; Vishnar Cundasawmy Mudaliar; Vishnar Ammany Ammal.	.....	1,636 12 10	
			Endathoor Muttah.		
	Endathoor (*a*)	Venkatavaratharajulu Naidu; Venkataramanjulu Naidu; Venkatarunga Naidu.			(*a*) 1,616 4 3
	Olavetty (*b*)	Thundalum Nallidi Subba Reddyar ...			(*b*) 639 8 1
	Keel Karanai (*c*)	Ongadu Venkataperumal Reddyar ...			(*c*) 414 4 2
	Keelralvady (*d*)	C. Sundra Mudaliar			(*d*) 100 0 7
	Salayur (*e*)	Kotta Ragava Reddyar			(*e*) 299 14 8
	Kottyvakam (*f*)	Narasimulu Naidu			(*f*) 114 12 5
	Maruvalam (*g*)	Venkata Subba Reddyar; Ravana Reddyar; Appazi Reddyar *alias* Perumal Reddyar; Vatha Reddyar.			(*g*) 192 8 0
	Kollambakam (*h*)	Rajagopal Reddyar; Thivagara Reddyar, Ramakrishna Reddyar.	.....	4,243 5 4	(*h*) 182 9 9

to Fasli 1287, and the peishcush apportioned as shown.

The Muttah of Endathoor has been sub-divided subsequent

Madurantakam.	Oorangavali (*i*)	Genga Reddyar; Venkatakrishna Reddyar.			(*i*) 89 3 8
	Thonnadoo (*k*)	Sobba Reddyar			(*k*) 238 8 7
	Kolathoor (*l*)	Rungappa Reddyar; Sawmy Reddyar; Soobba Reddyar; Venkatakrishna Reddyar; Anthiyappa Reddyar.			(*l*) 138 0 4
	Neerpayer (*m*)	Soobba Reddyar; Runga Reddyar; Narrainasamy Reddyar; Kuppu Runga Reddiyar; Abboo Reddyar; Venkatavartha Reddyar; Kuppu Reddyar.			(*m*) 217 10 10
	Periveli	Venkataperumal Reddyar; Luchmana Reddyar.	.....	488 4 10	
	Magayur	Therupathivelala Venkatanarasu Punthulu Garu; N.P. Malai Rungappa Reddyar; Sanjeevaraya Pillai; Venkataragava Reddyar; Shunmuga Chettiar; Raghava Chettiar.	Maherban Thosthanvellala Venkatanarasa Punthulu Garu.	1,752 13 3	
	Kayapakam	Muthu Kumarappa Reddyar	.....	2,120 11 2	
	Isoor	Sattayappa Muthusamy Mudaliar ...	.....	658 12 3	
	Irumbedu	Do. do.	.....	939 0 2	
	Amayampattu	Vathantha Ramanuja Chariar; Shadagopa Chariar; Strinivasa Chariar.	.....	28 14 0	
	Vichoor	Teru Rathna Mudaliar	.....	123 4 7	
	Vilanganoor	Nagila Anantha Row (deceased) ...	.....	132 6 5	
	Peria Velikadu	Ooloothamangalam Venkatanarayana Reddyar, (deceased); Gooroova Reddyar.	.....	146 1 1	
	Vettur	Singapalli Venkata Soobbu Iyer ...	.....	320 5 9	
	Saravabakam	Moothoo Venkatarama Reddyar (deceased).	.....	225 12 7	
	Othevilakam	Arunachella Mudaliar	.....	235 1 2	
	Karimbakam	C. Vedachella Mudaliar	.....	210 14 8	
	Vembanur	Ammaiummal—Executive Agent Vythialinga Mudaliar.	.....	821 12 10	
	Panayur	Sattayappa Moothoosamy Mudaliar ...	.....	244 5 1	
	Vilangadu	Do. do.	.....	297 1 10	
	Puthukuppam	Do. do.	.....	46 0 0	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Taluks.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
				RS. A. P.	
	Keelakandai	Govinda Row; Saroovathama Row; Seshaghiri Row; Appu Row (deceased).	.....	177 11 3	
	Sinna Velikadu	Madras Baboo Raw; Ragoonatha Row; Venket Row; Govinda Row.	.....	192 13 2	
	Venmalagaram	Sattayappa Moottoosawmy Mudaliar.	.....	102 4 2	
	Sirukalattoor	Vizia Reddyar; Krishnasamy Reddyar.	.....	44 1 5	
	Pondur	A. Arunachella Mudaliar (deceased) ...	.....	3,693 9 10	
	Terayur	Ramasamy Naidu; P. Iyooloo Naidu; C. Iyooloo Naidu.	.....	147 0 11	
	Sirumayiloor	Krishna Iyengar; Veerasamy Mudaliar.	.....	446 14 5	
	Andarkuppam	Vedachala Mudaliar	.....	363 13 5	
	Chithur	Narayana Naidu; Moothusamy Naidu.	.....	165 9 4	
	Thundam Vellery	Thorayur Ramasamy Naidu; P. Iyooloo Naidu; C. Iyooloo Naidu.	.....	117 3 6	
	Mambakam	C. Ramyer	.....	205 10 10	
	Kalputtu	Iyooloo Naidu	.....	121 3 3	
	Kayanullur	C. Vedachella Mudaliar	.....	299 7 7	
	Pelankuppam	Arunachela Pillai	.....	15 2 3	
	Koomilee	Yogappa Mudaliar	.....	102 1 7	
	Puthupattu	Sattayappa Muthusamy Mudaliar ...	.....	208 15 10	
	Illedu	C. Vedachella Mudaliar	.....	168 7 3	

(*Continued*).

Madurantakam	Kokarantangal	Do. do.	.....	49	12	4
	Butheor	Sattayappa Muthusamy Mudaliar ...	.....	452	7	8
	Mudaliarkuppam	C. Vedachela Mudaliar	.....	97	15	4
	Nayanarkuppam	Do. do.	.....	79	6	5
	Othiyur	Sattayappa Muthusamy Mudaliar ...	.....	43	13	7
	Vanniyanalloor	Kooroor Apparow Pillay; Vedachela Mudaliar.	.....	790	6	6
	Porur	C. Vedachela Mudaliar	.....	200	15	8
	Kollatnallur	K. Veerasami Naidu; Sabapathy Naidu.	.....	131	15	1
	Noogambal	Moothoosami Naidu; Sivarama Gounden.	.....	245	15	8
	Sirunagar	Narayana Naiken; Vadagiri Mudaliar.	.....	130	1	7
	Periakilakadi	Tolupedu Rungapa Reddyar; Nerkanam Venkatasami Naik.	.....	357	7	10
	Sinnakilakadi	S. Sabapathy Pundaram	.....	113	8	4
	Sirupinayur	Sivakulu Venkaji Iyer (deceased) ...	.....	552	7	3
	Anaikuttu	Chithen Venketa Krishna Mudaliar ...	.....	1,840	3	10
	Thathamputtu	Srinivasa Reddyar; Krishna Reddyar.	.....	271	12	6
	Kolathur	Karukamalai Govinda Reddi Venketarama Reddyar.	.....	109	11	7
	Madavilagam	Mannaru Krishna Reddyar	.....	174	8	5
	Nariyur	K. Krishna Reddyar	.....	127	12	6
	Agaram	Somasundara Mudaliar	.....	80	0	4
	Neirkunappattu	Ragava Reddyar; Strinivasa Reddyar...	.....	504	8	3
	Thathankuppam	Cuddalore Tiagaraya Muthusami Mudaliar.	.....	45	10	7
	Thondamanullur	Rama Reddyar	.....	174	14	11
	Pavangur	Veerasami Reddyar	.....	409	5	2
	Komarakuppam	Narayana Reddyar	.....	245	8	1
				30,126	3	2
Ponneri.	Zari Zemin Ponneri	Periapolliem Arumuga Mudaliar ...	.....	276	3	0
	Peruvoil	Arance Nallappa Mudaliar	.....	1,771	2	1

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Taluks.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
(*Continued*).	Kilmadalambedu	Aranee Nallappa Mudaliar	.....	RS. A. P. 1,468 9 8	
	Elimbedu	Trivellore Baboo Row *alias* Boojanga Row.	.....	1,086 11 7	
	Keerappakam	Manappakam Venkata Reddi Naidu; Solvapathy Naidu.	.....	404 3 0	
	Penbakam	Perumal Seshammal	.....	1,348 14 4	
	Amoor	Do.	.....	2,618 1 3	
	Teruvoipadi	Devanoyaga Mudali and Annasamy Mudali (deceased); Armooga Mudali.	.....	63 8 0	
	Kanakambakam	Rajabalu Mudali; Mylappa Mudali ...	.....	398 9 9	
	T. Colloor	Comarasamy Mudali	.....	330 0 11	
	Kummungulam	Nippani Krishna Row	.....	788 9 0	
	Kandigai	Soondra Vinoyaga Mudali	.....	29 8 7	
	Thachoor	Subadraboy Ammal; Jamnaboy Ammal.	.....	448 15 1	
	Teruvengadapuram	Nalamadi Vencatapathy Naidu ...	.....	181 15 0	
	Vanbakam	Nippany Gopaul Row, deceased—sons Sanjeeva Row and Ramdoss Row.	.....	284 5 0	
	Sivapuram	Rockiappa Mudaliar (diseased)—heir Onnamalai Ammal.	.....	354 11 2	
	Pulicolam	Soobrayaloo Naidu	.....	294 7 6	
	Aricathoray	Thatha Mudali; Mylappa Mudali ...	.....	129 5 7	
	Lutchmeepuram	Nippany Govinda Row	.....	196 0 0	
	Agaram	Nippany Gopaul Row (deceased)—sons Sunjeeva Row and Ramadoss Row.	.....	103 15 8	

Ponneri

Thavarunjeri	Nippany Krishna Row	.....	146	3	4
Chinna Kavanam	Kattavar Subraya Mudali	.....	378	8	0
Kolattur	Nippany Krishna Row; Jagganada Row; Srinivasa Row.	.....	404	0	2
Oppalam	Do. (*i.e.*, all three) ...	.....	57	12	0
Pankapattu	Do. do.	.....	163	13	0
T. Cavanthangal	Do. do.	.....	40	1	0
Matharanedu	Do. do.	.....	109	15	10
Lingasamudram	Gopal Row (deceased); Nippany Krishna Row, Trustee of Sree Anjanayaswamyar's Pagoda.	.....	62	8	7
Arivakam	Nippany Ramdoss Puntulu	.....	140	8	10
Madimai	Do.	.....	223	14	4
Chittarasoor	Rajababoo Mudali	.....	152	4	0
Thatharasoor	Do.	.....	75	14	5
Pallambakam	Nippany Ramdoss Puntulu	.....	50	11	8
Padianulloor	Moothu Pillay (deceased)—heirs Annasamy Pillay, Soobraya Pillay, and Baboo Pillay, Appavu Pillai.	.....	562	11	0
Sembia Manalay	Poovaday Venkata Row	.....	212	8	0
Geritharapuram	Rangiah Naidu (deceased); Narayanaswami Naidu.	.....	135	13	9
Orukadu	Ravur Perumaul Naidu	.....	237	4	4
Neduvarambakam	Doivanoyaga Mudali and Annasamy Mudali (deceased); Arumuga Mudali.	.....	1,335	11	11
Irulipattoo	Appa Row Mudali (deceased)—son Singaravelu Mudali.	.....	237	4	11
Karungali	Vijiapur Ganasa Row	.....	157	8	1
Konjevoil	Prabala Subramania Iyer (deceased)—sons Seshachella Iyer, Bucheerama Iyer, and Ramachendra Iyer.	.....	226	14	6
		Total ...	17,841	11	10

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Taluks.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
Trivellore.	Iyevabagram	Egmore Rungiah Naidu and Egmore Devaraja Naidu.	.....	RS. A. P. 519 2 0	
	Siroovanur	Venketakrishna Mudali	.....	308 9 3	
	Kolundaloor	Subba Sastri	.....	668 10 8	
	Melagaram	Trivellore Sundaracharry	.....	195 1 0	
	Kaiveridur	Ponnalammal	.....	387 12 4	
	Trippasore	Ebrahim Saheb	.....	2,549 8 9	
	Authoopakam	Thatipathri Raja Row	.....	103 7 4	
	Mahinguppam	Ramalinga Mudali ; Vydialinga Mudali.	.....	395 2 10	
	Chengu	Anantha Charry ; Therumala Charry ; Venkatakrishnama Charry ; Strinivasa Ragava Charry ; Gopala Charry.	.....	1,027 2 1	
	Panambakam	Ebrahim Saheb	.....	275 7 10	
	Nungambakam	Thatipathri Raja Row	.....	540 7 6	
	Kunnathur	Soorala Subraya Chetty and Lutchmi Narayana Chetty.	.....	123 11 8	
	Eghattoor	Seth Sam (deceased)	.....	2,837 3 3	
	Kakaloor	Chennaplum Venketasamy Naidu, since deceased.	.....	986 12 8	
	Thiruvoor	Venkatagopal Row Garu	Raja Velukoti Canara Yachima Naidu, Bahadur, C.S.I., Pancha Huzzar Munsubdar, Rajah of Venkatagiri.	7,784 5 11	
	Vengal	Rungiah Naidu and Bhasheakal Naidu.	.....	2,680 13 0	
			Total ...	21,383 6 1	

Saidapet.	Mambalam	Lutchminarasima Reddy	.....		2,191 11 3		
	Pallaveram	Abdus Samuth Khan; Mahomed Abdulla Khan; Mahomed Oonnisa Begum.	.....		647 6 2		
		Raja Eshoor Doss Bahadur	Raja Eswara Doss Dayavunt Bahadur.				
	Chembrambakam	Bahooeeodumbi Ramanuja Charry; Bahooeeodumbi Tiruvengada Charry; Krishnama Charry.	.....		548 2 3		
	Soranjeri	Vembakam Somasi Krishnama Charry.	.....		2,462 10 9	The estate is under the management of the Court of Wards.	
	Sokkanalloor	Audilutchmi Ammal	.....		358 12 1		
	Vayalanallur	Soondra Valoo Mudaliar	.....		1,511 10 2		
	Thirumanam	Manini Chengama Naiken	.....		728 0 0		
	Chittukadu	Do.	.....		1,023 8 4		
	Korattur	Soobbaroya Mania Mudaliar; Thanikachella Mudaliar.	.....		327 12 5		
	Tirumalrajapuram	Echambadi Venkata Charry	.....		254 10 10		
	Palamanjoor	Voodayagheri Sundramal	.....		239 15 4		
	Modirambedu	Varadarajalu Iyengar	.....		52 2 3		
	Tirukolpattu	Viswanatha Mudaliar	.....		82 9 0		
	Thookampattu	Vinayaga Ayasamy Mudaliar	.....		65 3 0		
	Sumithrampedu	Oodayaghiri Venkier	.....		217 0 0		
				Total ...	10,711 1 10		
Conjeeveram.	Vallam	Colandavelu Mudaliar (deceased) ...	.....		1,140 3 8		
	Thundalum	Streeperambadur Strinivasalu Reddyar.	.....		556 4 1		
	Thodukadu	Patchappa Mudaliar (deceased), managed by executors.	.....		246 8 1		
	Santavallur	Voodayagiri Chinna Kamatchi Ammal.	.....		595 4 6		
	Kariamangalam	Nayer Gopala Krishna Pillay	.....		345 1 1		
	Sattrai	Namasivaya Mudali; Vedaramia Mudali; Cundasawmy Mudali; Venkatachellath Iyengar.	.....		1,197 2 1		
	Ulundai Mittah	.....					
	Z. Ulundai	Harib Soobbamal	.....		790 14 2	Since sub-divided and peishcush apportioned as follows:— Ulandai ... 523 12 5 Moothookoor 267 1 9	
	Z. Moothookoor	Hazib Krishna Row *alias* Soobba Row.					
	Periathangal	Colundaivaloo Mudaliar (deceased) ...	.....		70 10 9		

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Taluks.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
Conjeeveram—(*Continued*).	Agarum	Ramanna Punthulu; Seshaghiri Row ...	.....	RS. A. P. 565 15 5	
	Vayaloor	Lutchminarasima Reddyar; Pankajavalliammal.	.....	1,085 5 1	
	Bhimapuram	Striperambudur Bashiakaraswamiar ...	.....	102 9 6	
	Thathanur	Colundavelu Mudaliar (deceased) ...	.....	118 6 2	
	Palanallore	Tirumangalam Venkatachella Naidu (deceased); Trumal Naidu.	.....	455 12 6	
	Selayanoor	Reddinaikenpettah Ramachendra Naidu.	.....	159 10 0	
	Chittur	Kodur Vencatasubbamal	.....	221 12 0	
	Keevaloor	Strinivasa Reddy	.....	520 12 9	
	Bunarthangal	Permalur Annuthavillyammal and Lokanada Reddy.	.....	152 15 9	
	Karamthangal	Janakiammal	.....	148 15 5	
	Nemmili	Alamalammal and Lutchmamal ...	.....	848 1 1	
	Savookanthangal	Do. ...	.....	24 12 4	
	Kathagaram	Do. (*i.e.*, both) ...	.....	97 6 8	
	Veilakkottai	Kuppaniengar	.....	1,112 14 4	
	Vyppur	G. Veerasamy Pillai	.....	151 12 4	
	Eraiyur	Tiruvali Runga Chari (deceared); Latchammal.	.....	828 10 6	
	Karanappattu	Ramanuja Chariar	.....	60 5 2	
	Jamvampattu	Alamelammal	.....	271 10 2	
	Kottur	Annampundi Ibrahim Sahib	.....	1,509 2 7	
	Kannur	Pennalur Venketasawmy Reddy ...	.....	416 15 10	
			Total ...	13,795 14 0	
	Nerumbur	Krishnasamy Mudaliar	.....	1,246 9 9	
	Pakkam	Melmanappakam Ramasamy Mudaliar.	.....	95 13 6	

Chingleput.	Koonavakam	Krishnasawmy Mudaliar	.....		274 11 0	
	Pandur				1,024 7 7	
	Attavattam				108 12 3	
	Theppanampattu ...				88 3 10	
	Perubedu				492 1 10	
	Irumbalecherri	Somasundra Mudaliar	.....		110 6 7	
	Karumarapakkam ...				102 0 5	
	Ichangaranai				157 10 2	
	Amanambakam				390 12 8	
	Soorakooppam				22 8 6	
	Surudimangalam Mittas. Sooradimangalam	Chinna Theruvengada Mudaliar ...	.....			
	Surudimangalam Mittas. Soonthakarikooppam					
	Surudimangalam Mittas. Panankottucheri ...	Krishnasamy Mudaliar	.....		970 2 10	
	Surudimangalam Mittas. Naduvakkari	Amurthammal	.....			
	Amanjikarai	Krishnasamy Mudaliar	.....		91 8 10	
	Perikattapakam ...					
	Kalakattacheri	(*a*) Rukmaniammal	.....			
	Solaikuppam					
	Vitlapuram	(*b*) Comarasamy Mudaliar	.....			
	Perumbakam					
	Kudipurambakam ...					
	Vitlapuram Mutta ...					
	Chittrambakam ...					
	Elayanarkupam ...				* 2,137 6 1	
	Somasipattu	(*c*) Rajah Eshwar Doss	Rajah Eshwar Doss Dayavanuth Bahadur ...			
	Poonapattu				*	
	Vasavapuram					
	Chinnakatupakam ...					
	Melakkandai	(*d*) Pondicherry Bashikal Naidu ...	.....			
	Oottankuli					

The estate of Vitlapuram has been sub-divided subsequent to Fasli 1287, and the peishcush apportioned as follows:—

	Rs.	A.	P.
(*a*)	259	5	5
(*b*)	1,014	5	4
(*c*)	672	8	5
(*d*)	191	2	11
	*2,137	6	1

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Taluks.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			CHINGLEPUT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
Chingleput—(*Continued*).	Arambakam	Ramasawmy Moodelly	.....	RS. A. P. 2,248 2 2	
	Vasavasamudram	Bahukatombi Chinna Strinivasa Chariar.	.....	491 11 2	
	Vengappakam	Vedachella Mudaliar and Janiarapuri Mudaliar.	.....	444 2 4	
	Narasankuppam	Degambara Row, Kistna Row, Sembora Boye, Guardian to Ramanatha Row, Bhavani Sankara Row, and Gayansagara Row.	.....	102 6 7	
	Vayalur	Origadu Chengalroya Reddyar ...	.....	575 10 7	
	Punthandlam	Covelong Nazamudin Sahib	.....	110 10 8	
	Bommarajupuram	B. Sheshadri Iyengar; B. Vencatachari; C. Seshiengar.	.....	409 8 1	
	Kunnathur	Strinivasa Nattan	.....	502 0 6	
			Total ...	12,192 7 11	
			COIMBATORE DISTRICT.		
Pollachi.	Oothoocooly	Siva Soobramania Thiroomoorty Calingaroya Gounder.		4,393 0 8	
	Samattoor and Kottampatty ...	Colanthasawmy Vanaroya Gounder ...		1,683 2 6 1,860 15 5	
	Avalappampatty	Jotta Naiker		4,200 0 0	
	Poravipolliem	Jagan Mandalathipathi Gopana Mannadiyar.		2,804 12 6	
	Ramapatnum	Malayandiyerrappa Gounder		1,436 9 3	
	Negamam	Soobroya Thava Naiker		2,480 12 8	
	Metrathy	Comara Moothoorungasawmy Nattama Naiker.	Poligar...	1,965 10 10	

Udamalpet.	Thoongavy	Seela Naiker			848 10 8	
	Myvady	Agathoor Calingaroya Gounder ...			561 2 8	
	Jothampatty	Jotham Naiker			143 6 9	
	Vedapatty	Koomara Velayada Cummalasawmy Naiker.			146 8 1	
Karur.	Andipatty	Komara Peria Thambi Bomma Naiker.			5,166 5 3	
Coimbatore.	Mylaripoliem, Palatoray, Nachipoliem, Carroosawmy, Gounderpoliem, Thumba Gounderpoliem, Vellimalaypatnum, and Naikempoliem.	Ramachendra Row	Shrotriemdar.		Quit-rent. 1,182 0 0	
Collegal.	Mooloor and Okinium	Janopakarakarta Triplicane Ramasawmy Moodelliar.			2,236 0 0	
	Sattiagalam	Do. do. ...	Jaghiredar			

GANJAM DISTRICT.

ANCIENT ZEMINDARIS.

Principal Divisions.

No.					
1	Palur	Sri Chendrasekhara Gazendra	Sri Chendrasekhara Gazendra, Zemindar of Palur Gariki.	553 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's name afterwards.
2	Humma	Sri Purushottama Narayana Santaraya Mahapatro Deo.	Sri Purushottama Narayana Santarya, Mahapatro Deo, Zemindar of Humma Gariki.	1,163 0 4	Do. do.
3	Beridi	Sri Vinayakasur Mahartha Mardharaja, Bramaravaraya.	Sri Vinayakasur Mahartha Mardharaja Bramaravaraya, Zemindar of Beridi Gariki.	4,456 13 0	Do. do.
4	Kallikot	Sri Narayana Mardharaja Deo	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Narayana Mardaharaja Deo, Zemindar of Kallikota and Hautghur Gariki.	18,975 8 10	When addressing the Zemindar his name is written first and the Collector's afterwards.
5	Bodagada	Sri Durga Madhava Sing	Sri Durga Madhava Sing, Zemindar of Bodagada Gariki.	4,230 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's name afterwards.
6	Dharakota	Sri Braja Sundara Sing	Sri Braja Sundara Sing, Zemindar of Dharakota Gariki.	24,965 5 6	Do. do.
7	Serghar	Sri Lakshmi Narasimha Deo (Minor) ...	Sri Lakshmi Narasimha Deo, Minor Zemindar of Serghar Gariki.	5,822 13 3	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's afterwards. This estate is under the management of the Court of Wards.

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			GANJAM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
			ANCIENT ZEMINDARIS—(*Continued*).		
			Principal Divisions—(Continued).		
8	Pratapagiri or Chinna Kimedi.	Sri Braja Kesora Deo (Minor)	Sri Braja Kesora Deo, Minor Zemindar of Pratapagiri Gariki.	RS. A. P. 19,941 11 4	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's afterwards. This estate is under the management of the Court of Wards.
9	Vizianagram or Pedda Kimedi.	Sri Lakshminarayana Ananga Bhima Deo Kesari.	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Lakshminarayana Ananga Bhima Deo Kesari, Zemindar of Vizianagram Gariki.	23,323 13 5	When addressing the Zemindar his name is written first and the Collector's afterwards.
10	Chikati	Sri Viswambara Rajendra Deo ...	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Viswambara Rajendra Deo, Zemindar of Chikati Gariki.	33,915 6 1	Do. do.
11	Surangi	Sri Niladrichendra Harischendana Jagad Deo.	Sri Niladrichendra Harischendana Jagad Deo, Zemindar of Surangi Gariki.	3,545 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's name afterwards.
12	Jarada	Sri Saradhi Charana Santara	Sri Saradhi Charana Santara, Zemindar of Jarada Gariki.	2,025 0 0	Do. do.
13	Jalantra	Sri Ramakristna Chotraya Deo, (Minor).	Sri Ramakrishtna Chotraya Deo, Minor Zemindar of Jalantra Gariki.	7,384 4 3	Do. do. Under the management of the Court of Wards.
14	Budara Singi	Sri Lakshmi Narayana Nissankuraya Deo.	Sri Lakshmi Narayana Nissan Kuraya Deo, Zemindar of Budara Singi Gariki.	525 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's afterwards.
15	Mandasa	Sri Rajamani Raja Deo, C.I.E.	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Rajamani Raja Deo, C.I.E., Zemindar of Mandasa Gariki.	14,035 0 0	When addressing the Zemindar his name is written first and the Collector's afterwards.
16	Kattingia (Hill Muta) ...	Sri Raghunatha Sing	Sri Raghunatha Sing, Muttadar of Kattingia Gariki.	50 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's afterwards.
			Sub-Division.		
17	Parla Kimedi	Sri Viraprataparudra Gazapati Narayana Deo.	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Viraprataparudra Gazapati Narayana Deo, Zemindar of Parla Kimedi Gariki.	87,825 4 0	The taluk is under the management of the Court of Wards. When addressing the Zemindar his name is written first and the Collector's afterwards.
18	Tarla	Sri Ramachendra Sur	Sri Ramachendra Sur, Zemindar of Tarla Gariki	4,000 0 0	The Collector's name is written first and the Zemindar's afterwards.
			Total Zemindaris ...	2,56,737 0 0	

PROPRIETARY ESTATES.

Principal Divisions.

1	Hautghur	Sri Narayana Mardharaja Deo ...	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sri Narayana Mardharaja Deo, Zemindar of Kallicota and Hautghur Gariki.	59,929	1	9	When addressing the Zemindar his name is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
2	Aska...	Tripasuru Venkata Seshagirirow Pantulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Seshagirirow Pantulu, Malukdar of Aska, &c., Gariki.	4,849	2	3	The Collector's name is first written and the proprietor's afterwards.
3	Kurla	Tripasuru Venkata Krishnarow Pantulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Krishnarow Pantulu, Malukdar of Kurla, &c., Gariki.	5,427	11	1	Do. do.
4	Devabhumi	Tripasuru Venkata Samalrow Pantulu and Tripasuru Sundaarow Pantulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Samalrow Pantulu and Sundararow Pantulu Garlaku, Malukdars of Devabhumi, &c.	5,188	5	0	Do. do.
5	Barwa	1. Magata Dewan Baksh Mahapatro. 2. Chendramani Padhi.	Magata Dewan Bakshi Mahapatro and Chendramani Padhi Garlaku, Malukdars of Barwa.	3,900	0	0	Do. do. This estate was handed over to these two to the exclusion of their brother Kasiviswanadha Padhi—*Vide* Court of Ward's Proceedings, dated 22nd April 1876, No. 1,074.
6	Peta	Vasudevapadhi Khadanga	Vasudeva Padhi Khadanga, Malukdar of Barwa ...	3,900	0	0	Collector's name is first written and the proprietor's name afterwards.
			Total ...	83,194	4	1	

Sub-Division.

7	Raghunadhapore	Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Pata Tekkali and Raghunadhapuram Gariki.	9,817	8	0	When addressing this proprietrix her name is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
8	Nandigam (comprising eastern half of Nandigam and western half of Talugam).	Sri Gazapati Nilamani Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Nilamani Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Nandigam Gariki.	9,128	0	0	Do. do. *Subdivided with reference to District Court's warrant, No. 267, dated 15th February 1878, in O.S. No. 72 of 1861, and M.P. No. 207 of 1876.*
9	Penta (a sub-division of Nandigam).	Chendrasekhara Panigrahi, Trustee of the Pagoda Sri Gopala Kristnasawmy.	Chendrasekhara Panigrahi Gariki, Trustee of the Pagoda Sri Gopala Kristnasawmy.	548	8	0	The Collector's name is written first and the propretor's afterwards.
10	Chinnari Gokarlapalli (a subdivision of ditto).	Jaganadha Sampatirayi Santo ...	Jaganadha Sampatirai Santo Gariki Malukdar of Chinnari Gokarapalli.	14	10	0	Do. do.

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			GANJAM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
			PROPRIETARY ESTATES—(*Continued*).		
			Sub-Division—(Continued).		
				RS. A. P.	
11	Talagam (comprising eastern half of Talagam and western half of Nandigam).	Sri Gazapati Radhamani Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Radhamani Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Talagam Gariki.	9,735 0 0	When addressing this proprietrix her name is first written and the Collector's afterwards—*Vide* remarks in italics against Nandigam.
12	Bharnigam	Chendrasekhara Panigrahi	Chendrasekhara Panigrahi Gariki, Malukdar of Bharnigam.	82 0 0	Collector's name is written first and the proprietor's afterwards.
13	Temburu	Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Raghunadhapore and Temburu Gariki.	4,910 0 0	When addressing this proprietrix her name is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
14	Nowgam (sub-division of Temburu).	Sri Gazapati Nilamani Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Nilamani Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Nowgam, &c., Gariki.	2,257 3 5	Do. do.
15	Khallada (a sub-division of Nowgam).	Sri Gazapati Radhamani Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Radhamani Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Khallada, &c., Gariki.	2,257 3 5	Do. do.
16	Potuluru (a sub-division of Nowgam).	Mallapragada Lingayya Pantulu ...	Mallapragada Lingayya Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Potuluru, &c.	67 15 10	The Collector's name is first written and the proprietor's afterwards.
17	Bejjipalli (a sub-division of Nowgam).	Do. do. ...	Mallapragada Lingayya Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Potuluru and Bejjipalli.	327 9 4	Do. do.
18	Pata Tekkali	Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Sri Gazapati Radhika Patta Mahadevi, Proprietrix of Pata Tekkali, &c., Gariki.	9,816 0 0	When addressing this proprietrix her name is written first and the Collector's afterwards.
19	Gopalpur	Kalidindi Venkatareddi Pantulu ...	Kalidindi Venkatareddi Pantulu, Trustee of Pagoda Sri Kodundaramaswami at Chicacole.	3,698 12 5	The Collector's name is first written and the trustee's afterwards.
20	Pedda Tungam	Ratnala Godavari	Ratnala Godavari Gariki, Malukdar of Pedda Tungam.	424 1 9	Do. do. Has attained majority.
21	Tallavalsa	Ratnala Narayadu	Ratnala Narayadu Garki, Malukdar of Tallavalsa.	424 1 10	The Collector's name is first written and the proprietor's afterwards.

22	Chinna Tungam	Ratnala Kylasam Chowdari	Ratnala Kylasam Chowdari Gariki, Malukdar of Chinna Tungam.	424 9 10	Do. do.	
23	Cnakipally	Tripasuru Venkata Seshagiri Row Puntulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Seshagiri Row Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Aska, &c.	868 11 0	Do. do.	
24	Konusalakotoor	1. Tripasuru Venkata Samalrao Pantulu. 2. Tripasuru Sundararao Pantulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Samalrao Pantulu and Sundararao Pantulu Garlaki, Malukdars of Devabhumi, &c.	393 3 6	Do. do.	
25	Tarlipeta	Tripasuru Venkata Kristnarow Pantulu.	Tripasuru Venkata Kristna Row Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Kurla, &c.	255 8 6	Do. do.	
26	Boddam	Pydigantam Jagannatha Row Pantulu, Agent to Potapragada Sitaramaswamy Pantulu, the Proprietor.	Pydigantam Jagannatha Row Pantulu Gariki, Agent to the Proprietor Potapragada Sitaramaswamy Pantulu Gar.	89 5 3	Do. do.	
27	Belamarapalavalasa	Kannepalli Lakshminarasavudhanlu ...	Kannepalli Lakshminarasavudhanlu Gariki, Malukdar of Belamarapalavalasa.	1,042 11 9	Do. do.	
28	Chittivalsa	1. Patnayakuni Upendra Patnayak. 2. Eswarappa Patnayak. 3. Bangarayah Patnayak. 4. Lakshmi Nursimha Patnayak.	Patnayakuni Upendra Patnayak, Eswarappa Patnayak, Bangarayah Patnayak, and Lakshmi Nursimha Patnayak, Malukdars of Chittivalsa.	2,074 2 5	Do. do.	
29	Jarjangi	Ravi Ramayya Pantulu	Ravi Ramayya Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Jarjangi, &c.	1,001 15 1	Do. do.	
30	Yelamanchili	Do. do. ...	Do. do. ...	654 1 8	Do. do.	
31	Rajapuram	Kannepalli Mahadevalla Bhukta ...	Kannepalli Mahadevalla Bhukta Gariki, Malukdar of Susaram, Rajapuram, and Siddebeherakottoor.	76 6 6	Do. do. Has attained majority.	
32	Susaram	Do. do. ...	Do. do. ...	332 13 10	Do. do. do.	
33	Siddebeherakottoor	Do. do. ...	Do. do. ...	101 15 1	Do. do. do.	
34	Malagam	1. Rachuri Hanumantarow ... 2. Chirravuri Vissahpa. 3. Nittala Chundrasekharudu. 4. Ravi Ramayya Pantulu.	Rachuri Hanumantarow, Chirravuri Vissappa, Nittala Chundrasekharudu, and Ravi Ramayya Pantulu Garlaku, Malukdars of Malagam.	570 15 1	Do. do. Transfer Register runs in the name of Rachuri Narasaya, but Hanumantarow's name has not been registered. Both of them died. Their heirs have not presented themselves to get their names registered.	
35	Jonnapadu	Konduparty Jaggannadha Doss Pantulu Ghar.	Kanduparty Jaggannadha Doss Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Jonnapadu.	91 12 3	Collector's name is written first and the proprietor's afterwards.	
36	Akkayavalasa	1. Nandigam Simhachelam Patnayak ... 2. Kamanna Patnayak.	Nandigam Simhachelam Patnayak and Kamanna Patnayak Garlaku, Malukdars of Akkayavalasa ...	278 5 9	Do. do.	
37	Sowdam	Timmarauz Venkatrow Pantulu and Kapavarapu Papamma.	Timmarauz Venkatrow Pantulu and Kapavarapu Papamma Garlaku, Malukdars of Sowdam.	686 2 10	Do. do.	
38	Danta	Tripurana Venkata Jaggarow and Surya Pracasarow.	Tripurana Venkata Jaggarow and Surya Pracasarow Garlaku, Malukdars of Danta.	2,309 5 5	Do. do.	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		GANJAM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		PROPRIETARY ESTATES—(*Continued*).			
		Sub-Division—(Continued).			
				RS. A. P.	
39	Tilaru	Madugula Kamalanabhayya	Madugula Kamalanabhayya Gariki, Malukdar of Tilaru.	3,654 0 4	The Collector's name is first written and the proprietor's afterwards.
40	Santalakshmipuram	1. Potnuru Anniah	Potnuru Anniah Gariki, Malukdar of Santalakshmipuram.	1,192 0 0	Do. do.
		2. Do. Venkannah ... (Nos. 2, 3, & 4 being minors their brother and guardian Potnuru Anniah.)			
		3. Do. Latchayya ...			
		4. Do. Dalisetti ...			
41	Talasamudrum	1. Chintha Jaggannadharow Pantulu. 2. Madabhushi Swetadrinadha Ghanasyama Charyulu. 3. Jagannadha Charyulu.	Chintha Jagannadharow Pantulu, Madabhushi Swetadrinadha Ghanasyama Charyulu, and Jagannadha Charyulu Garlaku, Malukdars of Talasamudrum.	2,383 0 0	Do. do. Chintha Jagannadharow Pantulu attained majority.
42	Urlam	Kandukuri Venkata Viswanadhan Pantulu (minor).	Ijjitasar Kandukuri Venkata Viswanadhan Pantulu Gariki, Malukdar of Urlam.	12,467 3 8	The Collector's name is not used when addressing the proprietor. This estate is now under the management of the Court of Wards.
43	Devadi (a sub-division of Urlam).	Do. do. ...	Do. do. of Devadi, &c. ...	1,113 4 4	Do. do.
44	Karakavalasa	Rajah Sri Lakshmi Challayya	Rajah Sahib Maharban Dostan Sri Rajah Lakshmi Challayya, Bahadur, Zemindarni of Bobbili, &c., Gariki.	4,048 0 0	In addressing the Zemindarni her name is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
45	Munagavalasa	Do. do. ...	Do. do. ...	3,978 0 0	Do. do.
46	Gottipalli	Sri Gode Narayana Gazipatirow Gar ...	Maharban Dostan Sri Gode Narayana Gazipatirow Gariki, Proprietor of Gottipalli.	2,034 0 0	When addressing the proprietor his name is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
47	Yembaram (sub-division of Gottipalli).	Sri Ankitam Atchayyamma	Sri Ankitam Atchayyamma Gariki, Proprietor of Yembaram.	2,015 0 0	When addressing the name of the proprietrix is first written and the Collector's afterwards.
			Total ...	1,80,965 13 8	
			Grand Total of Zemindaris and Proprietary Estates.	4,37,702 13 8	

1	Kotipally, of the Vizianagram Zemindari.	Pusapati Vijayaramagajapatirazu ...	Raja Saheb Maharban Mushpak Khadardan Karampharmaje Mokalisan Mirja Maharaja Sri Pusapati Vijayaramagajapatirazu Bahadur Manne Sultan, K.C.S.I., Vijayanageram Samasthonam Gariki.	...	Peishcush included in the Vizianagram Zemindari.
2	Pittapur	Rao Gangadhara Rama Rao	Rajah Saheb Maharban Dostan, Sri Rajah Rao Gangadhara Rama Rao, Bahadur Sirdar, Circar Rajahmundry, Va Rajah Taluk Pittapuram Vagayira Gariki.	2,50,009 2 11	
3	Uppada and Aminbada. ...	Junganti Bhavayya	Sri Junganti Bhavayya, Proprietor Muthe Uppada Gariki.	673 0 7	
4	Nidadavol and Baharjhally ...	Papamma Rao and Chinnamma Rao ...	Tahavvatu Vajalalat Dastugaha Rajah Papamma Rao, Rajah Chinnamma Rao, Bahadur Zemindarnis, Taluk Nidadavole, Circar Mustufanmagar Va Ellore Vagayira Sallamahu.	1,19,346 8 3	
5	Ambarapet	Papamma Rao and Chinnamma Rao ...	Tahavvati Vajalalat Dastugaha Rajah Papamma Rao, Rajah Chinnamma Rao, Bahadur Zemindarnis, Mutte Ambarupetta Vagayira Sallamahu.	16,697 10 3	
6	Kotham	Vatchavaya Suryanarayana Jagapatirazu.	Rajah Saheb Maharban Dostan, Sri Rajah Vatchavaya Suryanarayana Jagapatirazu, Bahadur Zemindar, Mutte Kotham Gariki.	26,429 3 9	
7	Vegayammapet	Vadrevu Ranganayakamma	Sri Vadrevu Ranganayakamma Zemindar, Mutte Vejayammapetta Gariki.	8,362 14 1	
8	Tangellamudi	Sitaya Appa Rao	Tahavvati Vajalalat Dastugaha Rajah Sitaya Appa Rao, Bahadur Zemindar, Mutte Tangellamudi Sallamahu.	5,143 0 0	
9	Bhimolu	Naraya Appa Rao	Rajah Saheb Maharban Dostan, Sri Rajah Naraya Appa Rao, Bahadur Zemindar, Circar Mustufannagger Va Ellore Vagayira Gariki,	3,031 0 0	
10	Anumullanka			611 0 0	
11	Singanagudem	Naraya Appa Rao	Tahavvati Vajalalat Dastugaha Rajah Naraya Appa Rao, Bahadur Zemindar, Paragane Nazividu Vagayira Sallamahu.	46 0 0	
12	Vilasa	Jillella Bhanoji Ramarsu	Jubdatul Yakaran Jillella Bhanoji Ramarsu Zemindar, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,440 11 6	
13	Janupalle			218 6 8	
14	Jalemudi			277 0 11	
15	Telikacharla	1. Kakarlapudi Venkatapatirazu. 2. Suryanarayana Jagapatirazu. 3. Subbarazu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Kakarlapudi Venkatapatirazu, do. do. Suryanarayana Jagapatirazu, do. do. Subbarazu Joint Zemindars Vantu Teliakcharla, Bephiyat Bashand.	962 8 0	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			GODAVARI DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
16	Gundepalli	Dantuluri Bullayya	Sri Dantuluri Bullayya, Zemindar Gundepalli Gariki.	RS. A. P. 962 8 0	
17	Panangipalli	Subnivis Venkayya Pantulu and Bhima Rao Pantulu and Bhima Sundara Senkaram.	Jubdatul Yakaran Subnivis Venkayya Pantulu, Bhima Rao Pantulu and Bhima Sundara Senkaram Pantulu, Joint Zemindars, Panangipalli, Baphiyat Bashand.	737 12 8	
18	Undeswarapuram	Gamogi Venkata Nurshimha Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Gomoji Venkata Nursimha Rao, Zemindar, Undeswarapuram, Baphiyat Bashand.	630 0 4	
19	Sirasavilli Savaram	Jillella Janakiram Murtiyunjaya Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Jillelle Janakiram Murtiyunjaya Rao, Zemindar, Sirasavilli Savaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	300 3 11	
20	Bantumilli	Gamoji Hanumanta Rao	Jubdatul Yakaran Gamoji Hanumanta Rao, Zemindar, Bantumilli, Baphiyat Bashand.	200 0 0	
21	Mukkamala	Duvvuri Venkatapati Somayajulu ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Duviriri Venkatapati Somayajulu, Zemindar, Mukkamala, Baphiyat Bashand.	107 12 0	
			Proprietors.		
22	Jaggampet	Chelikani Venkataramanayyamma ...	Sri Rajah Chelikani Venkataramanayyamma, Proprietor, Mutte Jaggampetta Gariki.	33,072 10 0	
23	Dontamuru			3,248 0 0	
24	Rayavaram			1,998 8 0	
25	Viravaram	Vellanki Lakshmi Venkayya Rao ...	Sri Rajah Vellanki Lakshmi Venkayya Rao, Proprietor, Mutte Viravaram Vajayira Gariki.	26,876 8 0	
26	Palivela			19,240 12 0	
27	Kirlampudi	Rao Buchi Sitayya Yinuganti Venkayyamma and Venkata Bhavayyamma.	Sri Rajah Rao Buchi Sitayya, Sri Yinuganti Venkayyamma, Sri Yinuganti Venkata Bhavayyamma, Joint Proprietors, Mutte Kirlampudi Garlaku.	23,282 10 0	
28	Gopalapuram	Uppalapati Venkata Jubdatal Yakaran Viziagopalraz.	Sri Rajah Uppalapati Venkata Viziagopalraz, Proprietor, Mutte Gopalapuram, Baphiyat Bashand.	18,540 3 2	

29	Kolanka	Rao Venkata Surya Rao and Venkata Dharma Rao.	Rajah Saheb Meharban Dostan Sri Rajah Rao Venkata Surya Rao Bahadur, and do. Venkata Dharma Rao, Bahadur Garlaku.	14,350 8 0
30*a*	Ellamanchili	Sundaragiri Srinivasa Ranga Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Sundaragiri Srinivasa Ranga Rao, Proprietor, Mutte Yalamanchili, Baphiyat Bashand.	8,823 0 4
30*b*	Chinchinada	Kandukuri Borrayya Bhushana Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Kandukuri Borrayya Bushana Rao, Proprietor, Mutti Chinchinada, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,647 14 2
30*c*	Chinna Mamidipalli	Kandukuri Ganathipati Prasadi Bhushana Rao,	Jubdatul Yakaran Kandukuri Ganathipati Prasada Bushana Rao, Proprietor, Chinna Mamidipalli, Baphiyat Bashand.	255 2 7
30*d*	Neredumilli	Bonam Venkatramadasu	Jubdatul Yekaran Bonam Venkatramadasu, Proprietor, Neredumilli, Baphiyat Bashand.	445 4 5
30*e*	Varidhanani	Alluri Venkata Raghavarazu	Jubdatul Yekaran Alluri Venkata Raghavarazu, Proprietor, Varidhanani, Baphiyat Bashand.	532 2 11
31	Dhumantunigudem	Sundaragiri Srinivasa Ranga Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Sundaragiri Srinivasa Ranga Rao, Proprietor Mutte Yalamanchili, Baphiyat Bashand.	142 7 8
32	Gollaprolu	Rao Ramayyamma and Rao Venkayyamma.	Sri Rajah Rao Ramayyamma and Sri Rao Venkayyamma, Joint Proprietors, Mutte Gollaprolu Garlaku.	11,567 4 11
33	Kesanakurru	Balusu Ramalakshmamma ...	Sri Balusu Ramalakshmamma, Proprietor, Mutte Kesannakurru Gariki.	11,574 12 2
34	Kapileswarapuram			8,765 6 9
35	Vasantavada	Bommadevara Venkata Nirsimha Nayudu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Bommadevara Venkata Nirsimha Nayudu Bahadur, Zemindar, Samutu Vallur Vagayiro, Baphiyat Bashand.	7,349 9 0
36	Narayanapuram			2,948 4 8
37	Malakacharla			1,495 0 0
38	Daddipudi			378 0 0
39	Gutala	Manyam Mahalakshmamma ...	Sri Manyam Mahalakshmamma, Proprietor, Mutte Gutala Gariki.	6,749 5 3
40	Mungondapalem			545 8 0
41	Chidipi			1,671 12 6
42	Peddeham			2,628 11 0
43	Tirugudumetta			1,856 10 8
44	Injeram			3,217 8 0

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

GODAVARI DISTRICT—(*Continued*).

Proprietors—(Continued).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush. Rs. A. P.	Remarks.
45	Polavaram	Kocharlakota Kamayyemma	Sri Kocharlakota Kamayyamma, Proprietor Polavaram Gariki.	6,727 13 0	
46	Pattesam			5,249 3 0	
47	Annadevarapadu ...	Yinuganti Suryaprakasa Rao and Venkata Nirsimha Rao.	Jubdatul Yakaran Yinuganti Suryaprakasa Rao and do. Venkata Nirsimha Rao, Joint Proprietors, Annadevarapadu Baphiyat Bashand.	3,895 8 0	
48	Prakkilanka			1,822 12 3	
49	Vangalapudy	Vadrevu Venkapa	Jubdatul Yakaran Vadrevu Venkappa, Proprietor, Vangalapudy, Baphiyat Bashand.	3,817 10 0	
50	Viravillipalem	Rao Venkata Jagga Rao	Jubdatul Yakaran Rao Venkata Jagga Rao, Proprietor, Viravillipalem, Baphiyat Bashand.	3,534 6 7	
51	Nadavapalli	Bollapragad Sitaramayya	Jubdatul Yekaram Bollapragada Sitaramayya, Proprietor, Mutte Nadavapalli Baphiyat Bashand.	3,129 3 4	
52	Tyajampudy	Vellanki Peda Venkatakristna Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Peda Venkatakristna Rao, Proprietor, Tyajampudy, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,791 4 6	
53	Kurukuru			1,482 9 10	
54	Billumilli	Mantripragada Durga Mallikharjana Prasada Rao.	Jubdatul Yakaran Mantripragada Durga Mallikharjana Prasada Rao, Proprietor, Lakkavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,619 13 6	
55	Lakkavaram			2,643 9 9	
56	Jangareddigudem ...			499 10 0	
57	Dharmavaram	Kanchumarti Narasayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Kanchumarti Narasayya, Proprietor, Dharmavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,402 15 11	
58	Krapa	Balusu Saravaroyudu Venkata Krushnayya and Gurulingaswami.	Jubdatul Yakaran Balusu Saravaroyudu do. Venkata Krushnayya do. Gurulingaswami, Joint Proprietors, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,385 13 9	
59	Malakapalli	Yimminni Acharlu Bulli Venkanna, Kuntamukkula Janakiramayya and Gundu Venkataratnam.	Jubdatul Yakaran Yimminni Acharlu, Bulli Venkanna, Kuntamukkula Janakiramayya and Gundu Venkataratnam, Proprietors, Malakacherla, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,282 0 0	

60	Katavaram	Chitturi Bapinidu	Jubdatul Yakaran Chitturi Bapinidu, Proprietor Katavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,135	0 0
61	Yadavolu	Kallepalli Bramhademudu, Patri Srinivasa Rao and Kotta Achayya.	Jubdatul Yakaran Kallepalli Bramhademudu, Patri Srinivasa Rao and Kotta Achayya, Proprietors Yadavolu, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,161	15 5
62	Konitivada	Taduri Sri Rama Nursimha Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Taduri Sri Rama Nursimha Rao, Proprietor, Konitivada, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,004	5 3
63	Borrampalem	Kamadana Suramma Rao ...	Sri Rajah Kamadana Suramma Rao, Proprietor Borrampalem, Vagayira Gariki.	1,938	15 7
64	Vegavaram			787	15 5
65	Gavuripatnam	Chelikani Venkat Rao	Jubdatul Yakaran Chelikani Venkat Rao, Proprietor Gavuripatnam, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,853	14 4
66	Murumanda	Damera Appa Rao and Jagga Rao ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Damera Appa Rao and Jagga Rao, Proprietors Murumanda, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,850	2 0
67	Anatavaram	Karra Vissayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Karra Vissayya, Proprietor Anatavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,763	2 0
68	Magam	Voleti Gopaladoss	Jubdatul Yakaran Voleti Gopaladoss, Proprietor Mavuja Magam, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,746	13 4
69	Yernagudem	Vanga Basavappa	Jubdatul Yakaran Vanga Basavappa, Proprietor Yernagudem, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,725	9 8
70	Vunakaramilli *alias* Ravimetta.	Chavala Ranganayakulu Nayudu and Narayanaswami Nayudu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Chavala Ranganayakulu Nayudu and Do. Narayanaswami Nayudu, Proprietors Ravimetta, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,630	8 7
71	Kalavalapalli	Kanchumarti Subbayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Kanchumarti Subbayya, Proprietor Kalavalapalli, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,346	13 8
72	Patavala Gurazanapally.	Rao Janakayya	Sri Rao Janakayya, Proprietor Mallavaram Vagayira Gariki.	1,296	5 1
73	Mallavaram			947	4 11
74	Johurullabada *alias* Hukumpeta.	Tadimeti Kylasaroydu, Trustee of the Chattram of Kruthventi Viralakshmidevamma Garu at Dowleswaram.	Jubdalut Yakaran Tadimetti Kylasareydu, Trustee of the Chattram of Kruthventi Viralakshmidevamma Garu at Dowleswaram, Proprietor Hukumpeta, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,401	15 0
75	Buchampetta	Kruttiventi Viralakshmidevamma ...	Sri Kruttiventi Viralakshmidevamma, Proprietor Buchampetta Gariki.	738	10 0
76	Gangolu	Hota Gangayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Hota Gangayya, Proprietor Gangolu, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,264	13 10
77	Vella	Mantripragada Durga Mallikharjana Prasada Rao.	Jubdatul Yakaran Mantripragada Durga Mallikharjana Prasada Rao, Proprietor Vella, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,240	2 6

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

GODAVARI DISTRICT—(*Continued*).

Proprietors—(Continued).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
				Rs. A. P.	
78	Bayyanagudem	Mantripragada Chinnamma Rao ...	Sri Mantripragada Chinnamma Rao, Proprietor, Bayyanagudem Gariki.	1,008 12 4	
79	Potukurru	Nori Viranna	Jubdatul Yakaran Nori Viranna, Proprietor of Potukurru, Baphiyat Bashand.	910 13 5	
80	Bommuru	Basavarazu Subbayya	Sri Basavarazu Subbayya, Proprietor, Bommuru Gariki.	833 6 2	
81	Guttinadivi	Toleti Buchi Lakshmamma	Sri Toleti Buchi Lakshmamma, Proprietor, Guttinadivi Gariki.	776 12 0	
82	Kondagudem	Pendyala Atchutaramayya	Jeroyyiti Asar Pendyala Atchutaramayya, Proprietor, Kondagudem, Baphiyat Bashand.	753 8 8	
83	Petta	Dasari Surayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Dasari Surayya, Proprietor, Petta, Baphiyat Bashand.	583 3 9	
84	Viravaram	Nallaparazu Venkata Niladrirazu ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Nallaparazu Venkata Niladrirazu, Proprietor, Viravaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	554 10 7	
85	Dandangi	Badireddi Tammanna	Jubdatul Yakaran Badireddi Tammanna, Proprietor, Dandangi, Baphiyat Bashand.	551 12 4	
86	Surasaniyanam	Alluri Atchutaroyudu and Anandayya.	Jubdatul Yakaran Alluri Atchutaroyudu and Anandayya, Proprietors, Surasaniyanam, Baphiyat Bashand.	529 4 3	
87	Nilapalli	Digumarti Ramaswami, Sitaramaswami, Kodandaramaswami, and Bhaskararamaswami.	Jubdatul Yakaran Digumarti Ramaswami, Sitaramaswami, Kodandaramaswami, and Bhaskararamaswami, Proprietors, Nilapalli, Baphiyat Bashand.	479 15 7	
88	Nandigudem	Birapalli Nagayyamma	Sri Birapalli Nagayyamma, Proprietor, Nandigudem Gariki.	380 6 10	
89	Nallamillipadu	Pasupuleti Jagannadhamma	Sri Pasupuleti Jaggannadhamma, Proprietor, Nallamillipadu Gariki.	203 4 11	
90	Gavaravaram	Raghavarazu Venkatarama Krushtnamrazu and China Rangarazu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Raghavarazu Venkataramakrushtnamrazu, and do. China Rangaraz, Proprietors, Gavaravaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	145 2 3	
91	Jagannadhapuram ...			117 15 3	

92	Payidimetta	Parasa Rajamma	Sri Prasa Rajamma, Proprietor, Payidimetta, Gariki.	110	1	8
93	Vadlapatlanatanam	Kamadana Subbamma Rao	Sri Rajah Kamadana Subbamma Rao, Proprietor, Vadlapatlanatanam Gariki.	86	11	9
94	Tirumanagudem	Gadicharlu Subramhanyam	Jubdatul Yakaran Gadicharla Subramhanyam, Proprietor, Tiruvuru (half share), Baphiyat Bashand.	64	8	9
		Munsubdars.				
95	Totapalli	Yanamulu Lachandora	Jubdatul Yakaran Yanamula Lachandora, Munsubdar, Totapalli, Baphiyat Bashand.	6,310	0	0
96	Rampah	Madhuviti Sri Rama Bhupatidevu ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Sri Madhuviti Sri Rama Bhupatidevu, Munsubdar, Taluk Rampah, Baphiyat Bashand.	.....		
97	Bhadrachalam and Rekapalli...	Parthasaradhi Appa Rao	Tahavat Vajalalat Dastugha Sri Rajah Parthasaadhi Appa Rao, Zemindar, Taluk Sri Bhadrachalam Gariki.	16,701	0	0

KISTNA DISTRICT.

Zemindaries.

1	Chintalapati Vontu	Vasireddi Bhavani Muktesvara Prasada Naidu.	Shahamut Murtabutva Alimunjutat Rajah Vasireddi Bhavani Muktesvara Prasada Naidu Bahadur, Zemindar of Chintalapati Vontu, Salla Mahullahutala.	17,500	7	10	
2	Nuzvid Zemindari	Meka Rajah Raja Gopala Apparow (Minor).	Tahavur Vajulalut Dastugaha Rajah Raja Gopala Apparow Bahadur, Zemindar of Nuzvid, &c., Sallamahu.	95,443	9	11	
3	Devarakota	Yarlagadda Malli Kharjuna Prasada Naidu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Sreemantu Rajah Yarlagadda Malli Kharjuna Prasada Naidu Bahadur, Zemindar, Paragane Devarakota, Baphiyat Bashand.	81,397	0	0	
4	Chevendra	Meka Venkatadri Apparow ...	Tahavir Vajalalut Dastugaha Rajah Venkatadri Apparow Bahadur, Zemindar of Chevandra, &c., Sallamahu.	4,776	0	2	For Chevendra.
5	Chanubanda Village ...			1,357	0	0	For Chanubanda.
6	Mylavaram Mutah, 1¼ Vontu...	Rajah Venkata Chinnayya Row, wife of Rajah Venkata Narasimha Apparow Bahadur.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Venkata Chinnayya Row Bahadur, Zemindar, Paragane Mylavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	4,858	12	0	
7	Mylavaram Mutah, 1 Vontu ...	Suraneni Venkata Gopala Narasimha Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Venkata Gopala Narasimha Row Bahadur, Zemindar, Paragane Mylavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	3,887	0	0	
8	Vutukur Mutah	Vellanki Venkatrama Surya Prakasa Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Venkatrama Surya Prakasa Row, Zemindar of Vutukur Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,156	0	0	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		KISTNA DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		Zemindaries—(Continued).			
9	Half of Tirvur Mutah	Vellanki Venkatrama Row	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Venkatrama Row, Zemindar of half of Tirvur Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	RS. A. P. 2,177 0 0	
10	Yenagadapa Mutah	Vellanki Venkata Narasimha Row and Venkatrama Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Venkata Narasimha Row and Venkatrama Row, Zemindars of Yenagadapa Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,236 5 11	
11	Half of Gumpalagudem Mutah.	Vellanki Lakshmi Venkamma Row ...	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Lakshmi Venkamma Row, Zemindar of half of Gumpalagudem Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,295 0 0	
12	Western portion of Gumpalagudem Estate.	Rajah Vellanki Venkata Kristna Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Vellanki Venkata Kristna Row, Zemindar of half of Gumpalagudem Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,291 8 0	
13	Munagala Paragana	Nayani Lachchamma Row	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Nayani Lachchamma Row, Zemindar of Munagala Paragana, Baphiyat Bashand.	4,572 9 6	
14	Vallur Sumut	Bommadevara Venkata Narasimha Naidu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Bommadevara Venkata Narasimha Naidu, Bahadur, Zemindar of Vallur, &c., Baphiyat Bashand.	20,493 1 2	For Vallur Samut.
15	Gudur Paragana ...			35,988 14 8	For Gudur Paragana.
16	Pinagudur Lanka Village			319 0 0	For Pinagudur Lanka Village.
17	Vissannapet	1. Kavali Venkata Sitaramayya, (Senior). 2. Do. do. do. (Junior).	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah Kavali Venkata Sitaramayya (Senior) and do. (Junior), Zemindars of Vissannapet Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	4,886 0 0	
18	Kruttiventi Samut ...	1. Kuvvam Venkata Lakshmamma ... 2. Manapaka Adi Lakshmamma. (Minors).	Jubdatul Yakaran Rajah. 1. Kuvvam Venkata Lakshmamma. 2. Manapaka Adi Lakshmamma, Zemindars of Samut Kruttivennu, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,910 0 0	
19	Balliparru	Pillarusetti Venkata Gopala Row Naidu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Pillarisetti Venkata Gopala Row Naidu, Proprietor of Balliparu, Baphiyat Bashand.	459 0 0	
20	Kuchipudy	Bhagavatula Narasayya, &c.	Jubdatul Yakaran Bhagavatula Narasayya, &c., Proprietors of Kuchipudy, Baphiyat Bashand.	229 4 0	

21	Narasayagudem	Suraneni Ramamma Row	Jubdatul Yakaran Suraneni Ramamma Row, Proprietor of Narasayagudem, Baphiyat Bashand.	138	11	5
22	Half of Tirvur Mutah ...	1. Gadicherla Subrahmanyam ... ... 2. China Sitayya. 3. Sitayya Kristnamurti. 4. Gadicherla Venkata Subba Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Gadicherla Subrahmanyam, &c., Proprietors of half of Tirvur Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,219	0	0
23	Kalagara	Kotagiri Jagannadha Row	Jubdatul Yakaran Kotagiri Jagannadha Row, Proprietor of Kalagara, Baphiyat Bashand.	812	4	0
24	Putrela	Katekaneni Venkatramayya and Venkayya.	Jubdatul Yakaran Katekaneni Venkatramayya, &c., Proprietors of Putrela, Baphiyat Bashand.	510	4	0
25	Kondur and Kambhampad.	1. Kotagiri Seshayya ... ... 2. Chilumuri Lakshmi Narsayya. 3. Venkanna. 4. Kotagiri Kichchayya.	Jubdatul Yakaran Kotagiri Seshayya, &c., Proprietors of Kondur, &c., Baphiyat Bashand.	507	0	0
26	Kokilampad	1. Kotagiri Rangayya Row ... ... 2. Venkayya Row. 3. Ramayya Row. 4. Subbayya Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Kotagiri Rangayya Row, &c., Proprietors of Kokilampad, Baphiyat Bashand.	75	0	0
27	Pengollu	Toleti Purushottamayya	Jubdatul Yakaran Toleti Purushottamayya, Proprietor of Pengollu, Baphiyat Bashand.	1,262	0	0
28	Munukulla	Vutukur Annamrazu, Seshayya Hanumantarayadu, and Srivamulu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Vutukur Annamrazu, &c., Proprietors of Munukulla, Baphiyat Bashand.	71	0	0
29	Komera Mutah	Vutukur Purushottam, &c.	Jubdatul Yakaran Vutukur Purushottam, &c., Proprietors of Komera Mutah, Baphiyat Bashand.	703	8	0
30	Lingagiri Paragana	Mantripragada Seshagiri Row and Ramazogi Row.	Jubdatul Yakaran Mantripragada Seshagiri Row, &c., Proprietors of Lingagiri Paragana, Baphiyat Bashand.	486	8	0
31	Devarapally	Sri Ranganayaka Swamivaru at Robertson's Peta, Masulipatam.	Koppula Pattabbi Ramanna Naidu, Manager of the Pagoda Sri Ranganayaka Swamivaru at Robertson's Peta, Baphiyat Bashand.	461	0	0
32	Rayavaram	1. Kuvvam Venkata Lakshmamma ... 2. Manapaka Adi Lakshmamma, (Minors).	Jubdatul Yakaran Kuvvam Venkata Lakshmamma, &c., Proprietors of Rayavaram, Baphiyat Bashand.	908	9	7
33	China Gollapalem	Srimat Tirumala Gudimella Tatta Charlu.	Jubdatul Yakaran Srimat Tirumalay Gudimella Tatta Charlu, Proprietor of China Gollapalem, Baphiyat Bashand.	238	0	0
34	Chiti Gudur	1. Satta Viraraghava Charlu ... ... 2. Rajah Bommadevara Venkata Narasimha Naidu Bahadur Zemindar. 3. Srimat Tirumala Gudimella Tatta Charlu.	Jubdatul Yekaran Rajah Bommadevara Venkata Narasimha Naidu, Bahadur, Zemindar of Vellur, &c., Baphiyat Bashand.	524	0	0

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		MADURA DISTRICT.			
1	Ramnad	Streematu Hiraniya, Gerbayagi Ravicula, Raja Muttuvijaya, Regunatha Baskarasami Setupaty.	Form of address in English communications— To Baskarasami Setupaty Avargal, Zemindar of Ramnad. Sir. Form of address in Tamil communications. Memo. sent to Baskarasami Setupaty Avargal, Zemindar of Ramnad. Old form of address in Tamil communications discontinued. Mucalis, Thastaca, Mavala, Inthafa Ramnad Zemindarni Rani Setupaty Parvatavardhani Natchiyar Avargal Sallaingu.	Rs. A. P. 3,13,998 3 3	
2	Shevagunga	Streematu Muttuvijaya Regunatha Dorasinga Tever *alias* Gavurivallaba Tever.	Form of address in English communications— Dorasinga Tever *alias* Gavurivallaba Tever Avargal, Zemindar of Shevagunga. Madam. Form of address in Tamil communications— Memo. to Dorasinga Tever *alias* Gavurivallaba Tever, Zemindar of Shevagunga. Old form of address in Tamil communications now discontinued. Macalis Thastaca Mavala, Inthafa Shevagunga, Zemindar Gorvey Vallaba Peria Woodaya Tevor Avargal Sallaingu.	2,88,317 2 3	
		Sub-Division forming			
3	Paliembatti, &c., Villages ...	1. Periyasami *alias* Kottasami Tever ... 2. Seemaisami *alias* Sivagna Tever. 3. Pandithorai Tever.	Memo. to Periasami *alias* Kottasami Tever, Seemaisami *alias* Sivagna Tever and Pandithorai Tever.	13,544 0 0	
4	Pandalgudi, &c., Villages ...	Ditto	Proprietors of Paliembatti and Pandalgudi Sub-Division.	11,136 0 0	
		Mutahdars.			
5	Rettiembady	Immudipattam Obala Naiker	Takeed to Immudipatam Obala Naiker, Zemindari of Rettiembady.	11,978 11 2	
6	Velur	Perumal Naiker	Takeed to Perumal Naiker, Zemindar of Melur ...	10,568 2 3	

Polipats.

7	Velliagoondum in Madura Taluk.	Viroodoo Rayer Mechi, Veerapattam, Ugnippariyudaya, Vallavattu Tirumalaregurama, Immudi, Kanagaroya Kavander Iyer.	Form of address in Tamil communications—Takeed sent to Immudi Kanagaroya Kavender, Zemindar of Melliagoondum.	2,183 11 8
8	Sirupalay in Madura Taluk ...	Mr. T. M. Scott	Mr. T. M. Scott	903 10 11
9	Puliengolum in Tirumungalum Taluk.	Sivatta Muttu Mathava Naiker ...	Takeed to Sivatta Muttu Mathava Naiker, Zemindar of Puliengolum.	1,931 8 9
10	Jotilanaikanoor in do. ...	Muttusawmi Jotila Naiker	Takeed to Muttusawmi Jotila Naiker, Zemindar of Jotilanaikanoor.	1,070 3 11
11	Wooddappanaiknoor	Tirumala Mootoolinga, Tambaya Vellia Sami, Wooddappa Naiker.	Takeed to Tirumala Mootoolinga, Tambaya Vellia Sami, Wooddappa Naiker, Zemindar of Wooddappanaicknoor.	2,583 15 4
12	Thoddappanaiknoor	Nallathathusami Thoddappa Naiker, Minor under Court of Wards.	Takeed to Nalathathusami Thoddappa Naiker, Minor Zemindar of Thoddappanaicknoor.	2,179 2 8
13	Keelacottai	Immudi Nagiasami Kavunder ...	Takeed to Immudi Nagiasami Kavunder, Zemindar of Keelacottai.	480 2 9
14	Naducottai	Periasoorappa Kavunder	Takeed to Periasoorappa Kavunder, Zemindar of Naducottai.	773 14 4
15	Melaycottai	Nagiasami Kavunder	Takeed to Nagiasami Kavunder, Zemindar of Melacottai.	910 4 1
16	Perayoor	Muttukumarasami Tumbichi Naiker ...	Takeed to Muttukumarasami Tumbichi Naiker, Zemindar of Perayoor.	11,857 4 8
17	Sappattoor	Nagyasami Kamya Naiker	Takeed to Nagyasami Kamya Naiker, Zemindar of Sappattoor.	8,813 7 4
18	Santhayoor	Gopalakristnammal	Takeed to Gopalakristnammal, Zemindarni of Santhayoor.	3,697 1 9
19	Yeloomalai	Nagammal	Takeed to Nagammal, Zemindarni of Yeloomalai ...	3,612 11 4
20	Bodinaikanoor	Thiroomalabodaya Komarajia Pandia Naiker, Minor under Court of Wards.	Takeed to Tiroomalabodaya Komarajia Pandia Naiker, Minor Zemindar of Badinaikanoor.	15,347 2 0
21	Gantamanaiknoor	Tirumala Gantama Kondala Nogya Ramakristnasami Naiker.	Takeed to Kondolamagoya Ramakristnasawmi Naiker, Minor Zemindar of Gantamanaiknoor.	13,414 13 3
22	Tevaram	Shanmugavallabha Konda Bommoo Naiker.	Takeed to Shanmugavallabha Konda Bommoo Naiker, Zemindar of Tevaram.	1,100 14 3
23	Yerasackanaiknoor	Veerakamoo Ammal	Takeed to Veerakamoo Ammal, Zemindarni of Yerasackanaiknoor.	2,061 15 8
24	Kannivady	Bungaroo Appaya Naiker	Takeed to Bungaroo Appaya Naiker, Zemindar of Kannivady.	38,129 11 9
25	Ammainaiknoor	Bommachi Naiker	Takeed to Bommachi Naiker, Zemindar of Ammainaiknoor.	13,668 6 4

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		MADURA DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		Polipats—(Continued).			
26	Ayagudy	Immudipattam Obalakondama Naiker.	Takeed to Immudipattam Obalakondama Naiker, Zemindar of Ayagudy.	RS. A. P. 16,785 2 3	
27	Yedayacottay	Latchumipathi Naiker	Takeed to Latchumipathi Naiker, Zemindar of Yedayacottay.	7,000 0 0	
28	Mambaray	Koomarakathiraya Naiker	Takeed to Komarakathiraya Naiker, Zemindar of Mambaray.	1,500 0 0	
		MALABAR DISTRICT.			
	.....	Sultan Ali, Rajah of Cannanore ...	Sultan Ali, Rajah of Cannanore	15,000 0 0	
		The Rajahs and Ranis of Malabar to whom Malikhana is paid by Government.			
				Amount of Malikhana paid per Annum.	
1	.....	Mana Vikrama, Zamorin or 1st Rajah of Calicut.	Mana Vikrama, Zemorin or 1st Rajah of Calicut ...	69,663 4 0	
2	.....	Mana Vikrama, Elaya or 2nd do.	Do. Elaya or 2nd do. ...	15,000 0 0	
3	.....	Do. do. or 3rd do. ...	Do. do. or 3rd do. ...	7,000 0 0	
4	.....	Do. do. or 4th do. ...	Do. do. or 4th do. ...	5,000 0 0	
5	.....	Do. do. or 5th do. ...	Do. do. or 5th do. ...	4,500 0 0	
6	.....	Ambadi Kovilagam Tamburatti of Calicut.	Ambadi Kovilagam Tamburatti of Calicut	4,000 0 0	
7	.....	Padinhare Kovilagam Tamburatti of Calicut.	Padinh are Kovilagam do. of do. ...	9,000 0 0	
8	.....	Pudia Kovilagam Tamburatti of Calicut	Pudia do. do. of do.	9,000 0 0	

9	.....	Kiyake Kovilagam Tamburattj of Calicut.	Kiyake	do.	do. of do.	9,000	0 0
10	.....	Valia or 1st Rajah of Beypore	Valia or 1st Rajah of Beypore			1,725	14 4
11	.....	Kerala Varma *alias* Elaya or 2nd Rajah of Beypore.	Kerala Varma *alias* Elaya or 2nd Rajah of Beypore.			276	11 5
12	.....	Rama Varma Rajah or 3rd Rajah of Beypore.	Rama Varma Rajah or 3rd Rajah of Beypore. ...			223	1 2
13	.....	Viran *alias* Rajah Rajah Varma Rajah or 4th Rajah of Beypore.	Viran *alias* Rajah RajahVarma Rajah or 4th Rajah of Beypore.			151	10 3
14	.....	Valia Tamburatti or 1st Rani of Beypore	Valia Tamburatti or 1st Rani of Beypore			85	7 11
15	.....	Manayat Kovilagam Tamburatti of Beypore.	Manayat Kovilagam Tamburutti of Beypore ...			142	13 0
16	.....	Nediyal Kovilagam Tamburatti of Beypore.	Nediyal	do.	of do. ...	142	13 0
17	.....	Panangat Kovilagam Tamburatti of Beypore.	Panangat	do.	of do. ...	142	13 0
18	.....	Pudia Kovilagam Tamburatti of Beypore.	Pudia	do.	of do. ...	142	13 0
19	.....	Mannil Edatil Nair of Puyavai	Mannil Edatil Nair of Puyavai			1,610	9 2
20	.....	Valu Pudia Kovilagam Ittammara Rajah of Parappanad.	Valu Pudia Kovilagam Ittammara Rajah of Parappanad.			3,085	11 6
21	.....	Valu Pudia Kovilagam Kunhi Kutti Tamburatti of Parappanad.	Valu Pudia Kovilagam Kunhi Kutti Tamburatti of Parappanad.			1,028	9 2
22	.....	Rama Mangalam Kovilagam Vira Varma Rajah of Kurumbranad.	Rama Mangalam Kovilagam Vira Varma Rajah of Kurumbranad.			4,000	0 0
23	.....	Mudirakkal Kovilagam Valia Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.	Mudirakkal Kovilagam Valia Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.			420	0 0
24	.....	Mudirakkal Kovilagam Cheria Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.	Mudirakkal Kovilagam Cheria Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.			180	0 0
25	.....	Malisherry Kovilagam Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.	Malisherry Kovilagam Tamburati of Kurumbranad.			480	0 0
26	.....	Malisherry Kovilagam Vira Varma Raja of Kurumbranad.	Do.	Vira Varma Rajah of Kurumbranad.		600	0 0
27	.....	Kulappurat Kovilagam Valia Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.	Kulappurat Kovilagam Valia Tamburatti of Kurumbranad.			144	0 0
28	.....	Payyormala Avinhat Nair of Calicut ...	Payyormala Avinhat Nair of Kurumbranad ...			4,058	4 2
29	.....	Vallabhan Chattan Raman *alias* Payyormala Kuttali Nair of Kurumbranad.	Vallabhan Chattan Raman *alias* Payyormala Kuttali Nair of Kurumbranad.			1,766	12 10

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Amount of Malikhana paid per Annum.	Remarks.
		MALABAR DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		The Rajahs and Ranis of Malabar to whom Malikhana is paid by Government—(Continued).			
				Rs. A. P.	
30	.....	Porlatiri Udaya Varma Rajah of Kudathanad.	Porlatiri Udaya Varma Rajah of Kudathanad ...	26,441 0 0	
31	.....	Raja Rajah Varma Rajah of Cherical ...	Raja Rajah Varma Rajah of Cherical	12,475 0 2	
32	.....	Thevangot Kovilagam Udaya Varma Rajah of Cherical.	Thevangot Kovilagam Udaya Varma Rajah of Cherical.	1,593 12 0	
33	.....	Kunhi Uma Rani of Cherical	Kunhi Uma Rani of Cherical	1,400 0 0	
34	.....	Kavinisherry Kovilagam Rani Varma Rajah of Cherical.	Kavinisherry Kovilagam Rani Varma Rajah of Cherical.	2,993 12 0	
35	.....	Padinhare Kovilagam Rama Varma Rajah of Cherical.	Padinhare Kovilagam Rama Varma Rajah of Cherical.	1,496 14 0	
36	.....	Kunhandi Rani (Minor) of Cherical ...	Kunhandi Rani (Minor) of Cherical	1,496 14 0	
37	.....	Chenga Kovilagam Ravi Varma Rajah of Cherical.	Chenga Kovilagam Ravi Varma Rajah of Cherical ...	170 13 3	
38	.....	Udaya Mangalom Meethale Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah of Cherical.	Udaya Mangalom Meethale Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah of Cherical.	500 0 0	
39	.....	Shekara Varma Rajah of Palghat ...	Shekara Varma Rajah of Palghat	13,898 4 6	
40	.....	Do. Elaya Rajah of Palghat.	Do. Elaya Rajah of Palghat	2,857 3 3	
41	.....	Shekara Valia Tamburatti of Palghat.	Shekara Valia Tamburatti of Palghat	137 2 3	
42	.....	Neduvil Edatil Bhima Achan of Palghat.	Neduvil Edatil Bhima Achan of Palghat	517 13 9	
43	.....	Elayachan Edatil Pangi Achan and Emmur Neither Valia Amma of Palghat.	Elayachan Edatil Pangi Achan and Emmur Neither Valia Amma of Palghat.	517 13 9	
44	.....	Kiyakke Konikal Edatha Pangi Achan of Palghat.	Kiyakke Konikal Edatha Pangi Achan of Palghat.	170 13 9	
45	.....	Edathera Valia Nair of Palghat ...	Edathera Valia Nair of Palghat	1,031 6 4	
46	.....	Mannun Valia Nair of do.	Mannun Valia Nair of do.	976 12 8	

47	.....	Vadakavitil Kunjunni *alias* Kongat Valia Nair of Palghat.	Vadakavital Kunjunni *alias* Kongat Valia Nair of Palghat.	1,044 13 1
48	.....	Vallabha Rajah of Valuvanad	Vallabha Rajah of Valuvanad	16,415 1 7
49	.....	Kavalappara Minor Parvati of Valuvanad.	Kavalappara Minor Parvati of Valuvanad	4,567 10 3
50	.....	Thekke Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah of Kotayam.	Thekke Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah Kotayam.	1,250 0 0
51	.....	Thekke Kovilagam Umma Rani of Kotayam.	Do. Umma Rani of Kotayam ...	500 0 0
52	.....	Padinhare Kovilagam Lekshmi Rani of Kotayam.	Padhinhare Kovilagam Lekshmi Rani of Kotayam.	1,750 0 0
53	.....	Kiyakkedath Kunhi Shangaren Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Kiyaakkedath Kunhi Shangaren Nambiar of Iruvanad	1,191 9 6
54	.....	Pukkot Tadathil Kunhi Lekshmi of Iruvanad.	Pukkot Tadathil Kunhi Lekshmi of Iruvanad ...	595 12 9
55	.....	Kamprat Kunhi Krishnan Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Kamprat Kunhi Krishnan Nambiar of Iruvanad ...	791 9 6
56	.....	Kamprat Kunhi Parvati Valia Amma of Iruvanad.	Do. Kunhi Parvati Valia Amma of do. ...	400 0 0
57	.....	Chandrot Maddevi Amma and Kunhi Komappen Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Shandrot Maddevi Amma and Kunhi Komappen Nambiar of Iruvanad.	595 12 9
58	.....	Narangoly Nambiar of Iruvanad ...	Narangoly Nambiar of Iruvanad	1,671 14 0
59	.....	Kurungot Tadathil Kunhi Shangaren Nair of Iruvanad.	Kurungot Tadathil Kunhi Shangaren Nair of Iruvanad.	350 3 2
60	.....	Kurungot Tadathil Pudia Vitil Bairu Nair of Iruvanad.	Kurungot Tadathil, Pudia Vitil Bairu Nair of Iruvanad.	150 0 0
61	.....	Kurungot Tadathil Pudia Kunhi Chattu Nair of Iruvanad.	Kurungot Tadathil Pudia Vitil Kunhi Chattu Nair of Iruvanad.	75 13 4
62	.....	Kurungot Tadathil Pudia Kunhi Uppatti Amma and Kunhi Chattu Nair of Iruvanad.	Kurungot Tadathil Pudia Kunhi Uppati Amma and Kunhi Chattu Nair of Iruvanad.	244 7 4
63	.....	Kurungot Koderi Madathil Kunhi Krishnan Nair of Iruvanad.	Kurugot Koderi Madathil Kunhi Krishnan Nair of Iruvanad.	116 7 4
64	.....	Kurungot Tadathil Tayai Kurungot Kunhi Parvati Amma and Kunhi Lekshmi of Iruvanad.	Kurungot Tadathil Tayai Kurungot Kunhi Parvati Amma and Kunhi Leksmi of Iruvanad.	107 2 4
65	.....	Vishnumangalam Kunhi Parvatti Kunhi Amma, Kunhi Mateyi Kettilamma, and Kunhi Mateyi Kunhi Amma of Iruvanad.	Vishnumangalam Kunhi Parvati Kunhi Amma, Kunhi Mateyi Kettilamma, and Kunhi Muteyi Kunhi Amma of Iruvanad.	178 1 8
66	.....	Kariat Paloli Edathil Kunhi Krishna Valia Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Kariat Paloli Edathil Kunhi Krishna Valia Nambiar of Iruvanad.	724 10 0

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Amount of Malikhana paid per Annum.	Remarks.
		MALABAR DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		***The Rajahs and Ranis of Malabar to whom Malikhana is paid by Government*—(Continued).**			
				RS. A. P.	
67	.....	Kariat Paloli Edathil Tachormal Govinda Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Kariat Paloli Edathil Tachormal Govinda Nambiar of Iruvanad.	362 5 0	
68	.....	Kariat Paloli Edathil Kunimanal Kunhi Raman Nambiar of Iruvanad.	Kariat Paloli Edathil Kunimanal Kunhi Raman Nambiar of Iruvanad.	362 5 0	
69	.....	Payyapurath Raman Nair of Iruvanad.	Payyapurath Raman Nair of Iruvanad	295 9 7	
70	.....	Kiyakke Kovilagam Ganga Rani of Koteyam.	Kiyakke Kovilagam Gange Rani of Koteyam ... Koteyam.	240 0 0	
71	.....	Kiyakke Kovilagam Shangara Varma Raja of Koteyam.	Kiyakka Kovilagam Shangara Varma Rajah of Koteyam.	180 0 0	
72	.....	Kiyakke Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah of Koteyam.	Kiyakke Kovilagam Kerala Varma Rajah of Koteyam.	250 0 0	
73	.....	Lekshmi Rani of Koteyam	Leksmi Rani of Koteyam	500 0 0	
		The Leading Jenmies who are not Rajahs.			
74	.....	Nilambur Tacharakavil Tirumulpad ...	Nilambur Tacharakavil Tirumulpad	.....	
75	.....	Amarampallath Edawanah Tirumulpad.	Amarampallath Edawanah Tirumulpad	.....	
76	.....	Venganattil Valia Nambudy of Collongode.	Venganattel Valia Nambudy of Collongode	.....	
		NELLORE DISTRICT.			
				Present Peishcush.	
1	Venkatagiri	Velugoti Stri Rajagopala Kistna Yachendrulavaru.	Rajah Sahib Mustapak Maharban Karunparmaya, Mokalisan Raji Velugoti Stri Rajagopalakrishna Yachendrulavaru Bahadur, Pancha Hazar Mansubdar.	3,77,085 3 4	The question whether Pancha Hazar Mansubdar is a personal title of the late Rajah or a family title seems open to question—*Vide* G.O., 25th July 1867, No. 212, and letter from the Chief Secretary to the Collector, No. 249, dated the 5th September 1867.
2	Muttyalapad	Venkata Narasimha Bhupala Bhaleravu.	Tahavvar Jaladat Dastagaha Rajah Venkata Narasimha Bhupala Bhale Ravu, Zemindar Taluk Muttyalapadu, Baphiyat Bashand.	2,000 0 0	

3	Chundi	.....	Tahavvar Jaladat Dastagaha Taluk Chundi, Baphiyat Basband.	21,219 4 11	The last holder died in 1870 and his son being a minor the estate is under the management of the Court of Wards.
4	Kalahasti	Damerla Kumara Venkatappa Nayudu.	Rajah Saheb Mushfak Maharban Karamfarmaya-mokalisan Raje Damerla Kumara Venkatappa Nayudu, Bahadur, C.S.I., Sallamabullahutala.	.....	The peishcush is paid in the North Arcot District; only a portion of the Zemindari is situated in this district.

NORTH ARCOT DISTRICT.

1	Kalahasti Zemindari	Raje Dhamarakumara Venkatappa Naidu Bahadur Garu.	A. Raje Sahib Mushphak Meharban, Tavajo Gustar, Mokalishan Salamulla Hutalla, Badh Istiyak Sami Mulhakath Masarath Ayath, Mushahudh, Khattir Yekalas Mazaher, Moharthanandh. Dhariayam. B. Jadeche Nigarash Mumayadh. C. Bagirami Muthalya Raje Sahib Mushphak Maharban, Tavajo Gustar, Mokalishan, Wumdhi Rajeheya Raje Damarakumara Venkatappa Naid, Bahadur Salamulla Hutalla. Darayad.	1,76,790 2 9	A—Form of address. B—Do. of concluding address. C—Do. of superscription.
2	Karvetnagar Zemindari ...	Raje Kumara Venkataperumalla Raju Bahadur Garu.	A. Raje Sahib Maharban, Tavajo Gustar, Mokalisan, Salamulla Hutalla. Badh Share Shok Mulakath Masarath Ayath. Mashahudh Khattir Yekalas Mujaher Magardhanandh. Dhariayam. B. Jadeche Nigarish, Numayadh. C. Bagirami Muthalya Raje Sahib Meharban, Tavajo Gustar, Mokalisan Wumdhe Rajahoe Raje Kumara Venkataperumalla Raju Bahadur Salamulla Hutalla. Dharayadh.	1,80,404 7 4	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			NORTH ARCOT DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
3	Punganur Zemindari	Raje Sugatur Yimmedi Sankara Royel Yesovanth Bahadur.	A. Sahib Mushpak Maharban, Karamparmaye Dhostan Raje Sugatur Yemmedi Sankarara Royel Yesovanth Bahadur Samastanum Punganur Sahibjee Salamulla Hutalla Ajitharaf Mestar Sahib Collector, Zillah Chittoor Bahadur Varu Anke Chandha—Mahe—Varaku Mokaru—lo, Kushe Wunnarm, Asahibalawari, Kushalinamah Hamesha Kalmi Cheyistu Ravalena Digar. B. Jyadha Vrayinchavalasinadi Yemi Unnadi Meharbanghi Badh. C. Sahib Mushpak Maharban Dhostan *Karamfarmaye* Dhostan, Raje Sugatur Immedi Sankara Royel, Yesovanth Bahadur Samastanum Punganur Sahibjee Salamulla Huthalla.	Rs. A. P. 66,859 6 10	
4	Kangundi Zemindari	Kammi Nayani Javvaji Venkatapathi Nayadu.	A. Sahib Maharban Dhostan Kamminayani Javvaji Venkatapathi Nayadu Samastanum Kungundi Sallamulla Az Mestar—Sahib Collector Tharaf, Sumal Sube, Arcot Varu Salam—Anki—Darivilla. B. Thelisedhi. C. Sahib Maharban Dhostan, Kamminayani Javvaji Venkatapathi Naidu Samastanum Kangundi, Salamuhu.	22,959 0 2	

5	Arni Jaghire	Streenivasa Rao Sahib	A. Row Sahib Mushpak Maharban Kharam Furmaye Dhostan Sreenivasa Rao Sahib Jaghiredar Jaghire Arni Salamulla Huthalla Dharivilla. B. Jyadha Meharbanghi Badh ... ... C. Row Sahib Mushpak Maharban Karam Farmay, Dhostan Streenivasa Row Sahib Jaghiredar Jaghire Arni, Salamulla Hutalla.	5,098 9 9	
			A.		
6	Pulicherla Polliem	Venkata Thimma Nayadu	Maharban Dhostan Poligar Polliem Salamulla Dharivilla.	5,580 5 1	
7	Bungari Polliem	Seshama Nayadu	.....	11,643 8 8	
			B.		
8	Gudipati	Subbaramappa Nayadu	Thelisedhi	2,849 3 0	
			C.		
9	Thumba Polliem	Chinnama Nayadu	Maharban Dhostan Polligar Polliem	1,783 4 4	
10	Kallur Polliem	Ahobala Raju	Salamuhu	4,097 6 4	
11	Naraganti Polliem	Gopala Nayadu	.....	6,553 9 2	
12	Karakambodi Polliem	Kanniah *alias* Kumara Venkatappa Nayadu.	.....	.....	The last two polliems pay only qult-rent to Government, but not peishcush.
13	Krishnapuram Polliem ...	Mungammagaru	.....	.....	

SALEM DISTRICT.

1	Salem Mitta	Mrs. Jessie Foulkes	The Zemindar of Salem Mitta	16,047 4 3	
2	Annadanapatty Mitta ...	1. S. Gopalasami Moodelly ... ... 2. S. Govindaraju Moodelly (died).	The Zemindars of Annadanapatty Mitta ...	7,655 6 6	
3	Kanamgurichi do.	S. Rajaratna Moodelly	The Zemindar of Kanamgurichi Mitta	9,622 4 9	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.—(*Continued.*)

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		SALEM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
4	Alagapuram Mitta	1. Gopalasami Moodelly ... ... 3. Mootoosami Odeyan. 2. Pariathumby Odeyan. 4. Nallammal. 5. Raja Gounden.	The Zemindars of Alagapuram Mitta	Rs. A. P. 2,817 6 4	
5	Carukalavadi Mitta	1. Kristnasami Naiken 2. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 3. Muthammal. 4. Ramasami Naiken. 5. Streenevasa Naiken.	The Zemindars of Carukalavadi Mitta	7,642 3 3	
6	Singalandapuram Mitta ...	1. Ramier ... ... 2. Rangier (died).	The Zemindars of Singalandapuram Mitta ...	5,129 14 2	
7	Razipoor Mitta	1. Soobramania Moodelly ... ... 2. Iyakannu Moodelly. 3. Pasoopathy Moodelly. 4. Kylasa Gounden. 5. Kolundavela Gounden. 6. Ramasami Gounden. 7. Gengavally Moothoosami Moodelly.	The Zemindars of Razipoor Mitta	2,964 0 6	
8	Kakaveri Mitta	Ramasammen	The Zemindar of Kakaveri Mitta	2,641 3 8	
9	Rakkipatti Mitta	1. Nachiappa Gounden ... ... 2. Streenivasien Gar. 3. Venkatachariar. 4. Mootoosami Iyengar.	The Zemindars of Rakkipatti Mitta	517 12 8	
10	Chandrasekerapuram Mitta ...	Periathumbi Gounden	The Zemindar of Chandrasekarapuram Mitta ...	1,816 0 9	
		ATUR TALUK.			
11	Chekkadipatti Mitta	1. Thana Padayachi ... ... 2. Ramasami Padayachi.	The Zemindars of Chekkadipatti Mitta	2,020 4 5	

NAMAKAL TALUK.

12	Namakal Mitta	1. Moothialoo Ammal ... ... 2. Ramasami Reddi.	The Zemindars of Namakal Mitta	7,902	7 11
13	1. Muthukapatti Mitta ... 2. Thoosoor Mitta.	Moothialoo Ammal	The Zemindar of Muthukapatti and other Mittas.	11,509	13 9
14	Ponneri Mitta	Matchammal	The Zemindar of Ponneri Mitta	2,135	8 10
15	Thipramahadevi Mitta ...	Veerammal	The Zemindar of Thipramahadevi Mitta	2,590	11 4
16	1. Kondichettipatti Mitta ... 2. Maroorpatti Mitta ...	1. Ammaniammal *alias* Sellayammal ... 2. Terumalay Reddy. 3. Matchammal.	The Zemindars of Kondichettipatti and other Mittas.	3,621	13 3
17	Mettupatti Mitta	1. Ammani Ammal *alias* Sellayammal... 2. Thirumala Reddy.	The Zemindars of Mettupatti Mitta	1,667	3 9
18	Poodookotai Mitta	Venkitarama Reddy	The Zemindar of Poodookotai Mitta	4,943	4 2
19	Luthivadi Mitta	Pethayammal	The Zemindar of Luthivadi Mitta	3,179	15 6
20	Agrahara Valavandi Mitta ...	Moothoovenkitachalla Reddy	The Zemindar of Agrahara Valavandi Mitta ...	2,629	1 3
21	Talambadi Mitta	1. Polama Reddy ... ... 2. Chithambara Reddy. 3. Aroonachella Reddy.	The Zemindars of Talambadi Mitta	1,486	2 4
22	Muttam Chetty Mitta ...	1. Presenna Venkitarama Reddy ... 2. Paramasiva Gounden. 3. Chinnana Gounden. 4. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden.	The Zemindars of Muttam Chetty Mitta	7,507	8 10
23	1. Eroomapatti Mitta ... 2. Palayapoliem Mitta	Kamatchi Ammal	The Zemindar of Eroomapatti and other Mittas ...	7,446	5 4
24	Pottanam Mitta	1. Paupi Reddy ... ... 2. Paupy Reddy. 3. Aroonachella Reddy.	The Zemindars of Pottanam Mitta	1,989	7 8
25	Pavithram Mitta	Malayandi Pillai	The Zemindar of Pavithram Mitta	5,286	4 2
26	Peria Pallamparai Mitta ...	1. Krishnama Chetty ... ... 2. Varathappa Chetty.	The Zemindars of Peria Pallamparai Mitta	3,465	8 8
27	Velukurichi Mitta	1. Vela Gounden ... ... 2. Palani Vela Gounden. 3. Nunjia Gounden.	The Zemindars of Velukurichi Mitta	7,894	13 10
28	Minamballi Mitta	Papayammal	The Zemindar of Minamballi Mitta	1,702	4 9
29	Modalapatti Mitta	1. Chellappa Gounden ... ... 3. Chellappa Gounden. 2. Raja Gounden. 4. Mootocsami Gounden. 5. Kolundavelu Gounden. 6. Nallammal.	The Zemindars of Modalapatti Mitta	5,431	1 1

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		SALEM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		NAMAKAL TALUK—(*Continued*).			
30	Thommangurichi Mitta ...	1. Kalli Gounden ... ... 2. Raja Gounden.	The Zemindars of Thommangurichi Mitta	RS. A. P. 5,438 1 3	
31	Tholoor Mitta	1. Ramasamy Odeyan ... ... 2. Thaga Odeyan. 3. Solamoothoo Odeyan. 4. Karuppa Odeyan. 5. Varathaperuma Odeyan. 6. Mekkaperuma Odeyan. 7. Ramasami Odeyan. 8. Nunje Gounden.	The Zemindars Tholoor Mitta	3,556 5 8	
32	Sendamangalam Mitta ...	1. Vela Gounden ... ... 2. Thaga Odeyan. 3. Solamoothoo Odeyan. 4. Koruppa Odeyan. 5. Varathaperuma Odeyan. 9. Mekkam Peruma Odeyan. 7. Ramasawmi Odeyan. 8. Malayandi Pillai.	The Zemindars of Sendamangalam Mitta ...	4,306 4 5	
33	Thindamangalam Mitta ...	1. Raja Gounden ... ... 2. Raja Gounden.	The Zemindars of Thindamangalam Mitta ...	7,283 3 5	
34	1. Solasiramani Mitta ... 2. Perungurichi Mitta.	Raja Gounden	The Zemindar of Solasiramani and other Mittas ...	8,087 3 8	
35	Thedoomal Mitta	Rangia Gounden	The Zemindar of Thedoomal Mitta	5,237 11 9	
36	Keerambore Mitta	1. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 2. Paramasiva Gounden 3. Chinnana Gounden. 4. Venkitammal. 5. Ragoonatha Sing.	The Zemindars of Keerambore Mitta	3,632 15 7	
37	Konore Mitta	1. Raja Gounden ... ... 2. Nallammal.	The Zemindars of Konore Mitta	3,247 9 4	
38	Kudacheri Mitta	Kylasa Gounden	The Zemindar of Kudacheri Mitta	3,546 10 5	
39	Kuppirikkapoliem ...	Krishnien	The Zemindar of Kuppirikkapoliem Mitta ...	2,026 6 4	

40	Pilloor Mitta	Presenna Venkitarama Reddy	The Zemindar of Pilloor Mitta	4,514	6	4
41	Seloor Mitta	Kamatchi Ammal	The Zemindar of Seloor Mitta	4,361	7	8
42	Sirkar Valavandi Mitta ...	1. Sadaya Gounden ... ... 1. Nallakal.	The Zemindars of Sircar Valavandi Mitta	6,249	13	11

TRICHENGODE TALUK.

43	Animoor Mitta	1. Tholasee Boyee ... ... 2. Atmaramdevai. 3. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 4. Paramasiva Gounden. 5. Chinnana Gounden.	The Zemindars of Animoor Mitta	6,402	12	5
44	Kokkalai Mitta	1. Raja Gounden ... ... 2. Nallamma. 3. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 4. Paramasiva Gounden. 5. Chinnana Gounden.	The Zemindars of Kokkalai Mitta	2,425	12	7
45	Chinnamanali Mitta	1. Kuppana Gounden ... ... 2. Appavoo Gounden *alias* Palanivela Gounden.	The Zemindars of Chinnamanali Mitta	1,538	4	2
46	Periamanali Mitta	Raja Gounden	The Zemindar of Periamanali Mitta	1,352	15	9
47	Molipalli Mitta	1. Sadaya Gounden ... ... 2. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 3. Chinnana Gounden. 4. Paramasiva Gounden.	The Zemindars of Molipalli Mitta	5,022	4	2
48	Poothoor Mitta	1. Raja Gounden ... ... 2. Kylasa Gounden. 3. Raja Gounden.	The Zemindars of Poothoor Mitta	12,189	8	4
49	Chittalandoor Mitta	Paramasiva Gounden	The Zemindar of Chittalandoor Mitta	3,675	11	5
50	1. Coomaramangalam Mitta ... 2. Comarapoliem Mitta. 3. Thokavadi Mitta. 4. Coundenpoliem Mitta. 5. Kalliani Mitta. 6. Moonjanoor Mitta. 7. Oonjani Mitta. 8. Kottai Varadampatti Mitta.	1. Paramasiva Gounden ... ... 2. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 3. Chinnana Gounden.	The Zemindars of Coomaramangalam and other Mittas.	23,339	15	1
51	Palamedoo Mitta	Mrs. Jessie Foulkes	The Zemindar of Palamedoo Mitta	2,782	13	0

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		SALEM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		TRICHENGODE TALUK—(*Continued*).			
52	1. Morangam Mitta ... ... 2. Kattoopolliem Mitta.	Poongalli Gounden	The Zemindar of Morangam and other Mittas ...	RS. A. P. 2,497 14 11	
53	Minnamballi Mitta	1. Nagamalai Gounden ... ... 2. Nellya Gounden.	The Zemindars of Minnamballi Mitta	3,368 4 1	
54	Caroomanoor Mitta	1. Sabapathi Gounden ... ... 2. Subbaroya Gounden. 3. Strinivasa Chetty.	The Zemindars of Caroomanoor Mitta	5,558 9 10	
55	Maraparai Mitta	Raja Gounden	The Zemindar of Maraparai Mitta	2,708 3 11	
56	Cokarayampettai Mitta ...	Palani Ammal	The Zemindar of Cokarayampettai Mitta	8,677 10 10	
57	Senkeghiri Mitta	1. Sabapathi Gounden ... ... 2. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden.	The Zemindars of Senkeghiri Mitta	3,104 14 11	
58	Konganapuram Mitta ...	Arthanary Gounden	The Zemindar of Konganapuram Mitta	8,429 5 8	
59	Erukalore Mitta	1. Sengotu Vela Gounden ... ... 2. Chinnana Gounden *alias* Kylasa Gounden. 3. Paramasiva Gounden. 4. Chinnana Gounden.	The Zemindars of Erukalore Mitta	2,801 14 6	
		UTTANKARAI TALUK.			
60	Kummainalloor Mitta ...	Balaji Row	The Zemindar of Kummainalloor Mitta	8,575 1 0	

61	Kadathore Mitta	1. Thoomana Gounden ... ... 2. Govinda Gounden. 3. Venkitarama Naidu. 4. Latchimi Ammal. 5. Cheloovammal. 6. Veerasawmy Naidu. 7. Vizayaranga Naidu. 8. Chokkanatha Chetty.	The Zemindars of Kadathore Mitta	7,867	11	11
62	Ananthoor Mitta	Venkitarama Chetty	The Zemindar of Ananthoor Mitta	1,526	0	9
63	Vaniembadi Mitta	1. Kistna Chetty ... ... 2. Chinnapa Chetty.	The Zemindars of Vaniembadi Mitta	764	1	7
64	Thiruvanampatti Mitta ...	1. Muthammal ... ... 2. Munisawmy.	The Zemindar of Theruvanampatti Mitta	777	8	3

TIRUPATUR TALUK.

65	Devastanam Mitta	Narayanasami Naiken	The Zemindar of Devastanam Mitta	966	4	8
66	Elaya Nagaram Mitta ...	1. Sooreyanarayana Soobramania Iyer. 2. Kanagasabapathy Iyer.	The Zemindars of Elaya Nagaram Mitta	333	9	2
67	Chikananguppam Mitta ...	Valli Sastri	The Zemindar of Chikananguppam Mitta ...	192	11	8
68	Alinjikolam Mitta	1. Latchimi Narayana Iyer ... ... 2. Ramachendra Iyer. 3. Ramasawmi Iyer.	The Zemindars of Alinjikolam Mitta	781	1	1
69	Amboor Pettai Mitta	Narayanasawmy Reddiar	The Zemindar of Amboor Pettai Mitta	3,968	15	5
70	Thathavalli Mitta	Venkitaramana Iyer	The Zemindar of Thathavalli Mitta	2,532	3	1
71	Yelageri Mitta	Mukunda Madva Munisawmy Reddy.	The Zemindar of Yelageri Mitta	5,892	11	0
72	Pallipattoo Mitta	Seshagiri Row	The Zemindar of Pallipattoo Mitta	936	1	1
73	Chelathampalli Mitta	Sami Chetty	The Zemindar of Chelathampalli Mitta	3,324	14	0
74	Bommakuppam Mitta	1. Abdul Kaséem ... ... 2. Shek Madar Sahib. 3. Mahomed Usain Sahib.	The Zemindars of Bommakuppam Mitta	5,461	5	0
75	Rasamangalam Mitta ...	Bahoodeen Sahib	The Zemindar of Rasamangalam Mitta	1,037	13	0
76	Kakkangarai Mitta ...	Papi Reddy	The Zemindar of Kakkangarai Mitta	833	4	8
77	Kandili Mitta	Ranga Row	The Zemindar of Kandili Mitta	1,436	1	2
78	Chinna Kandili Mitta ...	Devandahalli Booksham Seshageri Row	The Zemindar of China Kandili Mitta	469	11	10
79	Natham Mitta	Venkitarama Chetty	The Zemindar of Natham Mitta	2,597	15	10
80	Lakkinayakanpatti ...	1. Annamalai Chetty ... ... 2. Armuga Chetty.	The Zemindars of Lakkinayakanpatti	4,255	14	11

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		SALEM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		TIRUPATUR TALUK—(*Continued*).			
81	Puthagaram Mitta	Tippoo Sahib	The Zemindar of Puthagaram Mitta	RS. A. P. 916 1 8	
82	Pariyakaram Mitta ...	Kamaroonisa Begum Sahiba	The Zemindar of Periyakaram Mitta	1,755 15 0	
83	Kasinaikenpatti Mitta ...	Sheik Imam Sahib	The Zemindar of Kasinaikenpatti Mitta	1,757 7 9	
84	Mukanoor Mitta	Muthier	The Zemindar of Mukanoor Mitta	876 12 8	
85	Pachal Mitta	Kandasamy Chetty	The Zemindar of Pachal Mitta	1,772 14 2	
86	Thiriyalam Mitta	1. Javaji Subbarayaloo Naidu 2. Venkitapathi Naidu. 3. Munichi Ammal. 4. Munichi Ammal. 5. Mang Ammal.	The Zemindars of Thiriyalam Mitta	4,504 8 1	
87	Chinnavepamptti Mitta ...	P. Narasinga Lala	The Zemindar Chinnavepampatti Mitta	1,693 3 8	
88	Samanthikuppam Mitta ...	Venkitapathi Naiker	The Zemindar of Samanthikuppam Mitta	1,419 5 8	
89	Periakannalapatti Mitta ...	Sonachella Chetty	The Zemindar of Periakannalapatti Mitta	743 4 3	
90	Anayeri Mitta	Hassen Sahib	The Zemindar of Anayeri Mitta	891 13 7	
		DARAMPURI TALUK.			
91	Pangunatham Mitta	Thesi Naiker	The Zemindar of Pangunatham Mitta	1,519 5 7	
92	Nekoondee Mitta	1. Thesi Naiker ... ... 2. Armuga Chetty.	The Zemindars of Nekoondee Mitta	2,351 6 2	
93	Noolahalli Mitta	1. Ramasawmy Naiken ... ... 2. Krishnama Naiken. 3. Shariff Mahomed Khan Sahib *alias* Sydameah Sahib. 4. Moonisawmy Naiker.	The Zemindars of Noolahalli Mitta	2,498 3 0	

94	Reddy Halli Mitta	Shariff Mahomed Khan Sahib *alias* Sydameah Sahib.	The Zemindar of Reddy Halli Mitta	2,478	11	4
95	Paparapatty Mitta	1. Vasoodevien ... ... 2. Mathoo Row. 3. Narayanasamien. 4. Kishnasamien. 5. Pooreeshothamien. 6. Achoothien *alias* Lutchmi Venkitaramanien.	The Zemindars of Paparapatty Mitta	690	8	0
96	Madahalli Mitta	1. Streenevasa Row ... ... 2. Senkarien.	The Zemindars of Madahalli Mitta	681	10	3
97	Panangulam Mitta	1. Latheemeah Sahib ... ... 2. Venkitarama Chetty. 3. Namakal Subba Row.	The Zemindars of Panangulam Mitta	582	13	0
98	Valumpatty Mitta	1. Ramakishnayya ... ... 2. Haridhasiyya. 3. Venkitaramanayya. 4. Venkitappan. 5. Armuga Chetty. 6. Shunmuga Chetty.	The Zemindars of Valumpatty Mitta	972	4	0
99	Marandahalli Mitta	1. Royacotta Teruvengeda Moodelly ... 2. Basavammal.	The Zemindars of Marandahalli Mitta	3,480	14	2
100	Bavoohalli Mitta	Sied Salia Sahib *alias* Meer Mahomed Salia Sahib.	The Zemindar of Bavoohalli Mitta	1,604	15	2
101	Thirumalavadi Mitta	Thiruvengeda Moodelly	The Zemindar of Tirumalavadi Mitta	1,690	4	11
102	Hanumanthapuram Mitta ...	Ramaseshier	The Zemindar of Hanumanthapuram Mitta ...	3,249	15	11
103	Papinayakanpatti Mitta ...	1. Darampoory Ramakistna Chetty ... 2. Mututeruvambala Chetty. 3. Visvanatha Chetty.	The Zemindars of Papinayakanpatti Mitta ...	3,476	7	7

KRISHNAGIRI TALUK.

104	Kurumbarapalli Mitta	1. Vencoba Row ... ... 2. Anchi Naiken. 3. Venkitarama Naiken. 4. Venkitasami Naiken. 5. Thannerappa. 6. Samappa. 7. Canamiah. 8. Latchmanappa.	The Zemindars of Kuurumbarapalli Mitta ...	4,037	6	0
105	Kuntharapalli Mitta	Papi Reddy	The Zemindar of Kuntharapalli Mitta	454	2	11

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

SALEM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).

KRISHNAGIRI TALUK—(*Continued*).

Number.	Name of Estate.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
				RS. A. P.	
106	Thippanapalli Mitta	1. Meer Gulam Mahomed Saib ... 2. Meer Mahomed Solia Saib.	Zemindars of Thippanapalli Mitta	729 2 10	
107	Pyanapalli Mitta	Meer Mahomed Salia Saib	The Zemindar of Pyanapalli Mitta	278 4 9	
108	Bellarapalli Mitta	1. Sheik Madar Sahib ... ... 2. Mahomed Oossain Sahib.	The Zemindars of Bellarapalli Mitta	5,710 15 4	
109	1. Jagadevoo Mitta ... 2. Chendrapulli Mitta. ...	1. Manthrirajoo Venkitaranier ... 2. Ramen *alias* Ramasamien.	The Zemindars of Jagadevoo Mitta	1,890 6 0 706 2 4	
110	1. Poorooshothamapuram Mitta 2. Achamangalam Mitta.	Ramachendrien	The Zemindar of Poorooshothamapuram and other Mittas.	598 1 0 631 0 7	
111	Igoutham Kottapalli Mitta ...	Boothoo Sing	The Zemindar of Igoutham Kottapalli Mitta ...	720 12 10	
112	Thali Halli Mitta	1. Yemoona Boyee ... ... 2. Beroo Boyee.	The Zemindars of Thali Halli Mitta	1,899 0 3	
113	Pennasvara Mattam Mitta ...	Appaji Chetty	The Zemindar of Pennasvara Mattam Mitta ...	2,006 3 6	
114	Avoothvadi Mitta	Strinivasa Chetty	The Zemindar of Avoothvadi Mitta	1,960 0 5	
115	Nallore Mitta	T. Varatharaja Moodelly	The Zamindar of Nallore Mitta	1,432 14 0	
116	Namandahalli Mitta	Thoorvasa Moodelly	The Zemindar of Namandahalli Mitta	1,360 2 0	
117	Royacottah Mitta	Teruvengada Moodelly	The Zemindar of Royacotta Mitta	1,266 7 3	
118	Mahandra Mangalam Mitta ...	Ramachendra Row	The Zemindar of Mahandra Mangalam Mitta ...	4,403 4 8	
119	Heelagam Mitta	1. Govinda Row ... ... 2. Ragunatha Row. 3. Devasigamany Moodelly. 4. Nathamuni Moodelly. 5. Vencoba Row. 6. Rama Row.	The Zemindars of Heelagam Mitta	1,819 2 0	

120	Alegam Mitta	1. Devasigamany Moodelly ... ... 2. Nadamooni Moodelly.	The Zemindars of Alegam Mitta	1,829	11 0

OOSSOOR TALUK.

121	Bagaloor Palayapat	Pattayam Mari Nanjappa Naidoo ...	Maharban Dostan Pattayam Mari Nanjappa Naidoo Avargal, Poligar Samastanam Bagaloor Salmuhoon.	6,719	13 5
122	Soolageri Palayapat	Masti Mummoodi Chokkaya Gounder...	Maharban Dostan Raje Striman Masti Mummoodi Chokkaya Gounder Avargal, Poligar Samastanam Soolageri Salmuhoon.	5,521	12 0
123	Ankusigherri Palayapat ...	Masti Mummoodi Poottannier	Masti Mummoodi Poottannier Avargal, Poligar Samastanam Ankusigherri Palayapat Salmuhoon.	7,190	10 6

TANJORE DISTRICT.

1	Gandrakottah	Atchuta Pandarattar	Pandarattar	6,577	4 11
2	Sillattur	Vijia Ragunatha Rangasami Pannikandar.	Pannikandar	2,165	13 9
3	Palayavanam	Ramachendra Vijaya Arunachala Vanangumudi Pandarattar.	Pandarattar	3,767	12 0
4	Pappanadu	Ramalinga Vijayatevar	Vijayatevar	4,316	6 6
5	Singavanam	Savvayi Vijaya Rungunada Maharaja Mekkan Gopalar.	Mekkan Gopalar	3,261	9 10
6	Mudukkur	Savvayi Vijaya Ragunada Kanagasabai Gopalar.	Gopalar	2,491	7 10
7	Neduvasal	Vijaya Ragunada Muttayan Pannikondar.	Pannikondar	2,037	6 6
8	Sandangudi	Vijaya Ragunada Arunachala Vanangamudi Valuvadiyar.	Valuvadiyar	2,046	10 2
9	Kallakottai	Vijaya Ragunada Rangasami Singapuliyar.	Singapuliyar	1,701	13 6

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		TANJORE DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
				RS. A. P.	
10	Padaramkottai	Vijya Ragunada Balachi Singapuliyar.	Singapuliyar	1,369 9 11	
11	Attivette	Duraisami Akasam Servaikarar ...	Servaikarar	913 14 4	
12	Konur	Srinivasa Rayur	Rayur	433 3 11	
13	Punavasal	Appasami Malavaraya Pandarattar ...	Pandarattar	350 15 7	
				31,434 0 9	
		TINNEVELLY DISTRICT.			
			Zemindars.		
1	Ettiyapuram	Muttu Jegavira Ramakumara Ettappa Naiker.	To the Zemindar of Ettiyapuram	88,375 2 4	
2	Sivaghirri	Sangilivirapandia Chinnatambiar ...	To the Zemindar of Sivaghirri	54,580 2 0	
3	Uttumalai	Hirudayalaya Marudappa Tever ...	To the Zemindar of Uttumalai	26,971 4 9	
4	Urkad	Kotilinga Seturayar	To the Zemindar of Urkad	12,926 9 11	
5	Maniachi	Subramaniapandia Choka Talavar ...	To the Zemindar of Maniachi	1,812 9 7	
6	Settur	Vadamalei Tiruvana Tever	To the Zemindar of Settur	12,536 13 1	
7	Singampatti	Tennattupuli Nallakutti Sivasubramania Tever.	To the Zemindar of Singampatti	8,008 2 11	
8	Mannarkottai	Sankaravelupandia Sinnaya Naiker ...	To the Zemindar of Mannarkottai	5,093 10 5	
9	Sennalgudi	Sinnammal, Ponammal	To the Zemindar of Sennalgudi	4,503 7 0	
10	Avudayapuram	Puli Sivagnana Tever	To the Zemindar of Avudayapuram	4,340 15 0	
11	Kadambur	Socka Talavar	To the Zemindar of Kadambur	3,743 14 8	

12	Gollapatti	Sendurapandia Ittappa Ketchilappa Naikar.	To the Zemindar of Gollapatti	3,224	1	1
13	Attankara	Sokkalingapettana Naikar	To the Zemindar of Attangarai	3,372	7	4
14	Talavankottai	Indran Ramasami Pandia Talavar ...	To the Zemindar of Talavankottai	2,732	9	0
15	Pavali	Muttaya Chettiar	To the Zemindar of Pavali	2,701	12	4
16	Melmandai	Namasivayam Pillai	To the Zemindar of Melmandai	1,412	15	4
17	Alagapuri	Rettaikudai Kattaripandia Vanniyanar.	To the Zemindar of Alagapuri	679	9	4
18	Surandai	Kirudayalaya Marudappa Tevar, Zemindar of Uttumalai.	To the Zemindar of Surandai	368	7	0
19	Kollankondan	Ramasami Tirumalai Pandia Tevar ...	To the Zemindar of Kollankondan	24	14	10
20	Naduvakurichi, Minor Division	Tangamanachiar	To the Zemindarni of Naduvakurichi	303	6	7
21	Kulattur	Vizaya Ragunada Peria Karuttudaya, Servaikarar.	To the Zemindar of Kulattur	1,897	5	8

Mittas.

22	Perurani, ¾rd	Siva Subramania Pillai	To the Mittadar of Perurani	1,423	0	2
23	Do. ¼rd	Subramania Pillai	Do. do.	749	6	9
24	Karukurichi	Arinachalam Aiyar	To the Mittadar of Karukurchi	2,085	11	7
25	Naduvakurichi, Major Division.	Ramalinga Mudaliar	To the Mittadar of Naduvakurichi, Major Division.	1,223	9	7
26	Poikaikuttalaperi Agilandapuram.	Puranalingam Pillai	To the Mittadar of Poikaikuttalaperi and Agilandapuram.	514	9	2
27	Nochikulam and 6 other villages.	Chavadi Namasivayam Pillai and Kuttanaina Pillai.	To the Mittadars of Nochikulam	991	4	11
28	Kadalgudi	Shanmugam Pillai	To the Mittadar of Kadalgudi	880	9	8
29	Mallisurapuram	Lakshmana Prasad	To the Mittadar of Mallisurapuram	880	9	9
30	Vadamalapuram	Takuram	To the Mittadar of Vadamalapuram	880	9	8
31	Subramaniapuram	Irulappa Pillai	To the Mittadar of Subramaniapuram	880	9	8
32	Sundrapachayapuram ...	Ramaprasad and Karnalal	To the Mittadars of Sundrapachayapuram ...	880	9	8
33	Chokkampatti	R. M. A. R. Arunachalam Chettiar ... A. L. A. R. Ramasami Chettiar ...	To the Mittadars of Chokkampatti	4,053	12	0
34	Vairavankulam	Muttaya Chetti	To the Mittadar or Vairavankulam	4,180	0	8
35	Nainaragaram	Appasami Naikar	To the Mittadar of Nainaragaram	2,059	9	2

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		TINNEVELLY DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		Mittas—(Continued).			
36	Kambaneri Pudukudi	Venuvanalingam Tambiram	To the Mittadar of Kambaneri Pudukudi	RS. A. P. 2,003 3 9	
37	Urmeniyalagian	Dalavai Ramasami Mudalliar and Sankarakumaru Pillai.	To the Mittadars of Urmeniyalagian	2,122 4 10	
38	Kunnakudi	Shanmugam Pillai	To the Mittadar of Kunnakudi	1,153 0 11	
39	Tirumalai Naikan Pudukudi ...	Muttaya Chetti	To the Mittadar of Tirumalai Naikan Pudukudi ...	2,069 4 4	
40	Tiruvettanallur	Arasappan Chetti	To the Mittadar of Tiruvettanallur	1,645 0 2	
41	Viriruppu	Muttaya Chetti	To the Mittadar of Viriruppu	458 4 6	
42	Kulasegaramangalam	Do.	To the Mittadar of Kulasegaramangalam	2,029 4 3	
43	Vallam	Subbaraya Pillai	To the Mittadar of Vallam	825 0 0	
44	Chillaraipuravu	Ramasami Pillai	To the Mittadar of Chillaraipuravu	342 8 0	
45	Sivanadanur	Muttukumarasami Pillai	To the Mittadar of Sivanadanur	474 6 0	
46	Munnadiseri	Venkatachalaperumal Pillai	To the Mittadar of Munnadiseri	213 2 0	
47	Kulayaneri	Kongaraya Piramanayagam Pillai ...	To the Mittadar of Kulayaneri	674 10 0	
48	Anaikulam	Varisai Moidin Rowter	To the Mittadar of Anaikulam	291 0 0	
49	Vellalankulam	Do. do.	To the Mittadar of Vellalankulam	429 4 0	
50	Ichandavu	Periyakaruppan Chetti and Nachiyappan Chetti.	To the Mittadar of Ichandavu	557 8 0	
51	Nallamuttanpatti	Kalimuttu Sokkatalavar ... ... Subramania Talavar. Pillaiperumal Talavar. Venkatasubramania Talavar.	To the Mittadars of Nallamuttanpatti	519 9 0	
52	Ovayanaikanpatti	Narayanasami Mudaliar ... ... Shanmuga Mudaliar. Saravanai Mudaliar. Venkatasubbu Mudaliar. Arumuga Mudaliar.	To the Mittadars of Ovayanaikanpatti	727 13 0	

53	Elayirampannai, $\frac{1}{5}$th	Muttu Jagaviraramakumara Ettappa Naikar, Zemindar of Ettiapuram.	To the Mittadars of Elayirampannai	1,255 12 9	
54	Do. $\frac{1}{5}$th	Bulogapandia Talavar		1,255 12 10	
55	Do. $\frac{3}{20}$th	Muttu Jagaviraramakumara Ettappa Naik.		941 13 8	
56	Do. $\frac{1}{16}$th	Do. do. ...		392 7 0	
57	Do. $\frac{1}{16}$th	Shanmugavadivu Talavachiar ...		392 7 0	
58	Do. $\frac{1}{16}$th	Sundarapandia Talavar		392 7 0	
59	Do. $\frac{1}{16}$th	Subramaniapandia Chokka Talavar, Zemindar of Maniachi.		392 7 0	
60	Nagalapuram	Arunachala Row, Minaboyammal ...	To the Mittadar of Nagalapuram	6,445 5 8	
61	Pudur	Krishna Row	To the Mittadar of Pudur	6,414 6 10	
62	Vadimitta	Muthukumarasamy Maniagar	To the Mittadar of Vadimitta	5,440 5 11	
63	Sevalpatti	Subba Naikar	To the Mittadar of Sevalpatti	6,125 6 6	
64	Velayudapuram	R. M. A. R. R. M. Venkatachalam Chetti, and R. M. T. Tinnappan Chetti.	To the Mittadars of Velayudapuram	469 9 7	

(lvi *e*)

TRICHINOPOLY DISTRICT.

	Wodiarpolliem	Katchi Kalyana Rungappa Kalaka Tola Wodiar.	May Katchi Kalyana Rungappa Kalaka Tola Wodiar, the distinguished Zemindar of Wodiarpolliem, and who is equally respected as ourselves, live in happiness.	642 15 4	This Zemindar is addressed in Tamil in the form of "Yadast" with the following Hindustani words prefixed to his name: "Suptha thul Amagil Valekaran."
2	Thoriyur	Chettikolam Kumara Vencatachella Reddiyar.	May Chettikolam Kumara Vencatachella Reddiyar, the distinguished Zemindar of Thoriyur, and who is equally respected as ourselves, live in happiness.	700 0 0	These Zemindars are addressed in Tamil in the form of Yadast.
3	Marungapuri	Runga Kristna Muttoo Veera Puchia Naiker.	May Runga Kristna Muttoo Veera Puchia Naiker, the distinguished Zemindar of Marungapuri, and who is equally respected as ourselves, live in happiness.	20,586 15 6	
4	Kadavur	Karunagherri Muttiya Naiker ...	May Karunagherri Muttiya Naiker, the distinguished Zemindar of Kadavur, and who is equally respected as ourselves, live in happiness.	13,410 10 6	

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
			TRICHINOPOLY DISTRICT—(*Continued*).		
5	Kattuputtoor	1. Muthu Vencatachella Reddiyar ... 2. Chidambara Reddiyar. 3. Gopinada Iyer. 4. Heraniappa Iyer. 5. Ramasawmy Iyer. 6. Soobbarayer.	.....	RS. A. P. 15,901 7 11	Mutha Vencatachella Reddiyar and Chidambara Reddiyar are the proprietors of one half of the muttah and the remaining four of the other half. They are all addressed in Tamil in the form of "Takid."
6	Aryalur	1. Srinivasa Thathachariar ... ... 2. John Arivanandain Pillai ... ... 3. Kodiyalam Rengasami Iyengar ... 4. Sakaram Row Sahib ... ... 5. Rengasami Iyengar ... ... 6. Katchi Kalyana Rungappa Kalaka Thola Wodiar. 7. Vijayammal ... ... 8. Letchumana Chettiyar ... ... 9. Syed Esuf Sahib ... ... 10. Saptharishi Sastri ... ... 11. Venkatachellam Pillai ... ... 12. Velli Ammai	Owns 7 villages; registry transferred ... ... 1 do. do. ... ... 3 registry of one village transferred ... ... 13 do. do. ... ... 5 11 8 1 1 1 5 1 Registry not transferred 57	48 1 3 41 10 3 47 0 6 177 6 6 76 15 2 105 11 9 102 1 8 11 3 4 22 11 3 0 14 4 57 8 9 8 11 3 700 0 0	The 6th proprietor in the list is the Zemindar of Wodiarpolliem and is addressed as stated above. The 4th in the list is the consort of the Princess of Tanjore and is addressed in English in the form of "letter" as follows:— "R. J. Sakaram Row Sahib, "Mohathei Amir Row." The 5th has a title which with his name runs as follows:— "Raja Srivimitha Rungasami, Iyengar Bahadur." He is addressed in Tamil in the form of Takid. The rest are all addressed by means of "Takids."
			VIZAGAPATAM DISTRICT.		
1	Vizianagram, ancient Zemindari.	Pusapate Ananda Gajapatiraz	Rajah Sahebu Maharban Mushpukh Khadaradan Karampharmaye Mokhalisan Maharaja Mirja, Sri Ananda Gajapatiraz Manya Sultan Bahadur of Vizianagram Garu.	4,96,580 13 9	A reference has been made to the Board in regard to the titles to be used in correspondence with the present Raja—*Vide* this office letter, No. 798, dated 24th July 1879.

2	Bobbili, ancient Zemindari ...	Ravu Lakshmi Chellaya	Raja Saheb Maharban Dostan, Raja Sri Lakshmi Chellaiya Bahadur, Bobbili, Ranee Garu.	89,774 9 3	
3	Salur, Hill Zemindari ...	Jagannadha Narayana Ramachendraraju.	Raja Saheb Meharban Dostan, Raja Sri Jagannadha Narayana Ramachendraraju Peda Baliyara Simhulu Bahadur Garu.	36,000 0 0	
4	Madagulu, Hill Zemindari ...	Seeta Patta Mahadevi and Neelamani Patta Mahadevi.	Maharban Dostan Madagulu, Sri Teeta Patta Mahadevi Garu, and Sree Nelamani Patta Mahadevi Garu.	30,099 8 8	The late Zemindar having died his widows succeeded to his estate—*Vide* G.O., No. 138, dated 1st February 1876.
5	Merangi, Hill Zemindari ...	Setrucherla Jagannadahraju	Saheb Maharban Dostan Merangi, Minor Zemindar Sri Setrucherla Jagannadharaju Bahadur Garu.	18,479 10 8	
6	Jeypore, Hill Zemindari ...	Ramachendradevu	Maharaja Saheb Maharban Dostan Maharaja Sri Ramachendradevu Maharajulumgaru.	16,000 0 0	
7	Kurupam, Hill Zemindari ...	Vairicherla Suryanarayanaraju ...	Maharban Dostan Kurupam, Zemindar Vairicherla Suryanarayanaraju Bahadur Garu.	14,474 11 4	
8	Belgam, Hill Zemindari ...	Sivannaraya Natatraju	Maharban Dostan Belgam, Zemindar Sri Viravaratodaramallu Sivannarayana Tatraya Garu.	10,400 8 8	
9	Sangamvalsa, Hill Zemindari.	Mrutyanjaya Nissenku	Saheb Maharban Dostan Sangamvalasa, Zemindar Mrutyanjaya Nissenku Bahadur Garu.	6,700 0 0	
10	Chemudu, Hill Zemindari ...	Chendraraju Rana Simhulu	Maharban Dostan Chemudu, Zemindar Sri Chendraraju Rana Simhulu Garu.	5,000 0 0	
11	Pachipenta, Hill Zemindari ...	Tyada Annamaraju	Maharban Dostan Pachipenta, Zemindar Tyada Annamaraju Dakshana Kavata Dugaraju Garu.	2,696 5 3	
12	Andra, Hill Zemindari ...	Andra Ramandora	Izitasar Andra, Zemindar Andra Ramandora Garaprataparavu Garu.	1,386 10 8	

Proprietary Estates.

13	Anakapalle	G. N. Gajapati Rao and G. L. Narasinga Rao.	Maharban Dostan Anuhupally, joint proprietors. The Honorable Gode Narayana Gajapati Rao Garu and Gudevada Lakshmi Narasinga Rao Garu.	30,493 13 9	
14	Gudicherla			17,254 2 0	
15	Korupolu			8,041 14 4	
16	Bharinikam			1,566 8 0	
17	Munegapaka			24,636 6 0	
18	Srirampuram			17,907 15 7	
19	Kasimkota	Mantripragada Ramayamma	Kasimkota, &c., Proprietrix Mantripragada Ramayamma Garu.	13,901 9 0	
20	Melupaka			19,442 14 5	
21	Vuratla	Sagi Venkata Surya Narayana Jagannadharaj.	Maharban Dostan Vuratla, Proprietor Raja Sri Sagi Venkata Suriya Narayana Jagannadharaz Garu.	15,236 15 2	Under usufructuary mortgage of Dalla Venkata Ramachendraraju Kumundan Garu.

STATEMENT V.—NAMES OF ZEMINDARS, &c., IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY—(*Continued*).

Number.	Names of Estates.	Name of the Present Holder.	Full Title or Form of Address in English.	Present Peishcush.	Remarks.
		VIZAGAPATAM DISTRICT—(*Continued*).			
		Proprietary Estates—(Continued).			
22	Kondala Agraharam	Sagi Venkata Surya Narayana Jagannadharaj.	Maharban Dostan Vuratla, Proprietor Raja Sri Sagi Venkata Suriya Narayana Jagannadharaj Garu.	RS. A. P. 767 3 4	
23	Shermahomedpuram	Ankitam Atchaiyamma	Shermahomedpuram, Proprietrix Sri Ankitam Atchaiyamma Garu.	19,325 0 11	
24	Nakkapilli	Gode Narayana Gajapati Rao ...	Maharban Dostan Nakkapilli, &c., Proprietor The Honorable Gode Narayana Gajapati Rao Garu.	5,408 15 11	
25	Kuppili			8,429 1 9	
26	Siripuram	Inuganti Raja Gopularayanin Garu ...	Rajah Saheb Maharban Dostan Raja Inuganti Rajagopalarayaningar, Minor Proprietor of Siripuram.	10,618 8 0	The late proprietor having died his adopted son Raja Gopalarayaingar succeeded to the estate.
27	Ungarada	Ravu Lakshmi Kantayyammi	Ungarada, &c., Proprietrix Sri Raja Rava Lakshmi Kantayyami Bahadur Garu.	3,080 0 0	The late proprietrix transferred her right, title, and interest in her estates to her only daughter Ravu Lakshmi Kantayamuni Garu, whose name is registered in the Collector's office on the 4th August 1879.
28	Kintali			7,349 5 6	
29	Mantina			7,220 10 8	
30	Chidikada	Inuganti Bhavayyammi	Raja Saheb Maharban Dostan Raja Sri Inuganti Bhavayyammi Garu.	1,750 0 0	The late proprietor having died his widow Bhavayyammi Garu succeeded to the estate.
31	Jagannadhapuram ...			3,104 14 2	
32	Waltair	Mosalakanti Narasaiyamma	Waltair, Proprietrix Mosalakanti Narasaiyyamma Garu.	4,433 5 5	The late registered proprietor having died his widow succeeded to the estate.
33	Peda Gummulur	Mungamuru Subbaramayya and China Ramakrishnamma, &c.	Izitasar Peda Gummulu Proprietors, Mungamuru Subbaramayya and China Ramakristnamma, &c., joint proprietors.	3,761 5 5	Mungamuru Venkata Narasimha Rao and his widow having died the estate was registered in the names of M. Subbaramayya and China Ramakrishtnamma, their next legal heirs.

34	Chipurupilli	Gode Venkata Narayanarow	Maharban Dostan Chipurupilli, Proprietor Gode Venkata Narayana Rao Garu.	3,824	6 3	
35	Yidulapaka Bonangi	Vasanturavu Atchuta Narsing Row ...	Izitasar Yidulapaka Bonangi, Proprietor Vasantaravu Atchuta Narsing Raw Puntulu Garu.	2,056	8 0	
36	Appiconda	Gangabattula Suttayamah	Izitasar Appiconda, Proprietrix Gangabathula Suttayamma Garu.	601	4 10	
37	Siddeswaram	Yerramilli Mullekharjanula	Izitasar Siddeswaram, Proprietor Yerramilli Mullikharjanulu Pantulu Garu.	731	0 0	
38	Ravada	Vasanturao Lakshmi Narsing Rao ...	Izitasar Ravada, Minor Proprietor Vasantarao Lakshmi Narasingarao Pantulu Garu.	3,751	10 2	
39	Kurada Kondayavalasa ...	Shevala Rajagopalarava	Maharban Dostan Kurada Kondaiyavalsa, Proprietor Chevala Rajagopalaravu Garu.	681	0 0	
40	Mamidivada	Garuda Narasaiya Garu	Izitasar Mamidivadu, Proprietor Garudu Narasaiya Garu.	1,793	2 8	
41	Karrivalsa ... ... }	Cacarlapudi Nilayyamma	Izitasar Karrivalsa, &c., Proprietrix Cacarlapudi Nilayyamma Garu.	111	7 3	
42	Kotekapenta ... ... }			154	14 6	
43	Totavalasa	Under the usufructuary mortgage of individual No. 41.	Do. do.	37	5 0	
44	Kasipuram Estate	Belongs to individual No. 41	Do. do.	600	0 0	
45	Saripilli Bhimavaram Estate ...	Do. do. ,, 12	Do. do.	400	0 0	
46	Pondur and Mallaveram ...	Kakerlapudi Venkata Surya Narayana Neeladri Raju.	Pondur and Mallaveram, Minor Proprietor Kakerlapudi Venkata Surya Narayana Neeladri Raju Garu.	1,608	14 11	Sub-divided from the Urutla Estate under Board's Proceedings, No. 2,574, dated 15th September 1875.
47	Chenuduvadu	Kakerlapudi Pedu Narasaraju ...	Saheb Maharban Dostan Mushpuk Khaderdan Sri Raja Kakerlapudi Pedu Narasaraju, Ex-Zemindar Bahadur Garu on behalf of his minor adopted son Sri Raja Kakerlapudi Ramachendraraju Bahadur Garu.	952	14 5	Sub-divided from the Urutla Estate under Board's Proceedings, No. 2,574, dated 15th September 1875.
48	Bayyavaram	Dalla Venkata Ramachendraraj ...	Izitasar Bayyaveram, Proprietor Dalla Venkata Ramachendraraj Kumundan Garu.	851	12 6	Sub-divided from the Urulta Estate—*Vide* Board's Proceedings, No. 201, dated 24th January 1878.
49	Tangadu and Gotevada ...	Tagi Jagannadharaju and others ...	Izitasar Tangadu, &c., joint proprietors Sagi Janakirama Rauz Garu and others.	921	2 7	Sub-divided from the Urulta Estate—*Vide* Board's Proceedings, No. 201, dated 24th January 1878.

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS.

[*Referred to under the heading "Administration of the Land."*]

Districts.	Total Population.	Total Male Agriculturists above 12 years of age.	Description of Land.	Area in Square Miles paying Revenue to Government.				Area in Square Miles not paying Revenue to Government.				Total.			
				Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
				SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.
Bellary	1,653,010	371,836	Government	6	235	3,606	3,847	4,919	18	...	4,937	4,925	253	3,606	8,784
			Inam	28	346	1,031	1,405	4	207	616	827	32	553	1,647	2,232
			Zemindars	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			Total ...	34	581	4,637	5,252	4,923	225	616	5,764	4,957	806	5,253	11,016
Chingleput ...	938,184	214,104	Government	27	147	691	865	455	569	...	1,024	482	716	691	1,889
			Inam	75	122	120	317	11	28	61	100	86	150	181	417
			Zemindars	89	121	109	319	...	7	11	18	89	128	120	337
			Total ...	191	390	920	1,501	466	604	72	1,142	657	994	992	2,643
Coimbatore ...	1,763,274	394,958	Government	...	395	3,186	3,581	876	1,282	...	2,158	876	1,677	3,186	5,739
			Inam	3	17	135	155	3	52	282	337	6	69	417	492
			Zemindars	12	38	90	140	...	1	6	7	12	39	96	147
			Total ...	15	450	3,411	3,876	879	1,335	288	2,502	894	1,785	3,699	6,378
Cuddapah	1,351,194	334,081	Government	...	131	1,950	2,081	2,716	2,212	...	4,928	2,716	2,343	1,950	7,009
			Inam	37	107	457	601	9	88	343	440	46	195	800	1,041
			Zemindars	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			Total ...	37	238	2,407	2,682	2,725	2,300	343	5,368	2,762	2,538	2,750	8,050
Ganjam	1,388,976	327,860	Government	...	2	449	451	210	68	...	278	210	70	449	729
			Inam	19	3	144	166	2	1	28	31	21	4	172	197
			Zemindars	307	159	948	1,414	41	19	198	258	348	178	1,146	1,672
			Total ...	326	164	1,541	2,031	253	88	226	567	579	252	1,767	2,598
Godavari	1,592,939	388,057	Government	12	387	822	1,221	441	491	...	932	453	878	822	2,153
			Inam	26	175	390	591	3	42	71	116	29	217	461	707
			Zemindars	282	233	757	1,272	355	528	88	971	637	761	845	2,243
			Total ...	320	795	1,969	3,084	799	1,061	159	2,019	1,119	1,856	2,128	5,103

Kistna	1,452,374	306,716	Government	...	525	2,276	2,801	1,836	721	...	2,557	1,836	1,246	2,276	5,358
			Inam	53	238	599	890	2	38	109	149	55	276	708	1,039
			Zemindars	312	279	803	1,394	...	...	31	31	312	279	834	1,425
			Total ...	365	1,042	3,678	5,085	1,838	759	140	2,737	2,203	1,801	3,818	7,822
Kurnool	914,432	212,467	Government	...	67	1,800	1,867	2,162	1,375	...	3,537	2,162	1,442	1,800	5,404
			Inam	17	231	1,217	1,465	...	32	148	180	17	263	1,365	1,645
			Zemindars	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			Total ...	17	298	3,017	3,332	2,162	1,407	148	3,717	2,179	1,705	3,165	7,049
Madura	1,328,231	351,614	Government	...	174	1,192	1,366	632	685	...	1,317	632	859	1,192	2,688
			Inam	19	23	106	148	17	63	109	189	36	86	215	337
			Zemindars	416	221	474	1,111	1	2	27	30	417	223	501	1,141
			Total ...	435	418	1,772	2,625	650	750	136	1,536	1,085	1,168	1,908	4,161
Malabar	2,261,250	492,252	Government	...	6	1,217	1,223	272	4,170	530	4,972	272	4,176	1,747	6,195
			Inam	...	...	3	3	...	...	14	14	...	...	17	17
			Zemindars	...	...	5	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	5
			Total ...	...	6	1,225	1,231	272	4,170	544	4,986	272	4,176	1,769	6,217
Nellore	1,137,619	276,289	Government	1	262	1,175	1,438	1,269	898	...	2,167	1,276	1,160	1,175	3,605
			Inam	193	257	417	867	76	71	104	251	269	328	521	1,118
			Zemindars	69	7	65	141	...	...	6	6	69	7	71	147
			Total ...	263	526	1,657	2,446	1,345	969	110	2,424	1,608	1,495	1,767	4,870
Nilgiris	49,501	10,964	Government	...	27	73	100	546	100	...	646	546	127	73	746
			Inam	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	2	...	...	2	2
			Zemindars	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			Total ...	...	27	73	100	546	100	2	648	546	127	75	746
North Arcot ...	2,015,278	214,490	Government	...	114	983	1,097	2,031	502	...	2,533	2,031	616	983	3,630
			Inam	43	50	107	200	20	23	114	157	63	73	221	357
			Zemindars	1,581	445	523	2,549	31	28	91	150	1,612	473	614	2,699
			Total ...	1,624	609	1,613	3,846	2,082	553	205	2,840	3,706	1,162	1,818	6,686
Salem	1,966,995	456,301	Government	...	53	1,892	1,945	1,516	772	...	2,288	1,516	825	1,892	4,233
			Inam	71	13	234	318	4	4	39	47	75	17	273	365
			Zemindars	429	163	784	1,376	...	...	14	14	429	163	798	1,390
			Total ...	500	229	2,910	3,639	1,520	776	53	2,349	2,020	1,005	2,963	5,988
South Arcot ...	1,755,817	460,757	Government	...	187	1,799	1,986	1,228	1,439	...	2,667	1,228	1,626	1,799	4,653
			Inam	23	16	56	95	7	25	119	151	30	41	175	246
			Zemindars	21	3	14	38	...	...	...	...	21	3	14	38
			Total ...	44	206	1,869	2,119	1,235	1,464	119	2,818	1,279	1,670	1,988	4,937
South Canara ...	918,362	218,035	Government	...	5	532	537	3,668	139	...	3,807	3,668	144	532	4,349
			Inam	...	...	...	...	...	...	49	49	...	...	49	44
			Zemindars	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			Total ...	...	5	532	537	3,668	139	49	3,856	3,668	144	581	4,393

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS—(*Continued*).

Districts.	Total Population.	Total Male Agriculturists above 12 years of age.	Description of Land.	Area in Square miles paying Revenue to Government.				Area in Square Miles not paying Revenue to Government.				Total.			
				Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
				SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ. MLS.
Tanjore	1,943,731	425,580	Government	...	154	1,460	1,614	657	185	...	842	657	339	1,460	2,456
			Inam	235	263	348	846	21	37	80	138	256	300	428	984
			Zemindars	70	117	112	299	...	...	...	...	70	117	112	299
			Total ...	305	534	1,920	2,759	678	222	80	980	983	756	2,000	3,739
Tinnevelly ...	1,693,959	327,772	Government	...	550	1,492	2,042	779	166	...	945	779	716	1,492	2,987
			Inam	28	61	239	328	18	20	43	81	46	81	282	409
			Zemindars	285	165	913	1,363	2	3	64	69	287	168	977	1,432
			Total ...	313	776	2,644	3,733	799	189	197	1,095	1,112	965	2,751	4,828
Trichinopoly ...	1,200,408	920,348	Government	...	181	1,389	1,570	542	445	...	987	542	626	1,389	2,557
			Inam	8	20	97	125	60	42	138	240	68	62	235	365
			Zemindars	137	243	216	596	11	30	32	73	148	273	248	669
			Total ...	145	444	1,702	2,291	613	517	170	1,300	758	961	1,872	3,591
Vizagapatam ...	1,844,711	487,670	Government	37	17	157	211	5,003	10	...	5,013	5,040	27	157	5,224
			Inam	30	6	247	283	14	2	142	158	44	8	389	441
			Zemindars	303	28	881	1,212	11	4	10	25	314	32	891	1,237
			Total ...	370	51	1,285	1,706	5,028	16	151	5,196	5,398	67	1,437	6,902
Total ...	29,200,245	6,813,151	Government	83	3,619	28,141	31,843	31,758	16,247	530	48,535	31,841	19,866	28,671	80,378
			Inam	908	1,948	5,947	8,803	271	775	2,611	3,657	1,179	2,723	8,558	12,460
			Zemindars	4,313	2,222	6,694	13,229	452	622	578	1,652	4,765	2,844	7,272	14,881
			Total ...	5,304	7,789	40,782	53,875	32,481	17,644	3,719	53,844	37,785	25,433	44,501	107,719

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS—(*Continued*).

Districts.	Total Population.	Total Male Agriculturists above 12 years of age.	Description of Land.	Area in Square Miles paying Revenue to Government.				Area in Square Miles not paying Revenue to Government.				Total.			
				Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Uncultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.	Cultivable.	Cultivable but not cultivated.	Cultivated.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
				SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ. MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.	SQ.MLS.
Ramnad in Madura	504,131	126,197	Zemindari	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,556
Sevagunga in do....	434,253	110,762	Do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	734
Venkatagiri Zemindari in Nellore ...	239,192	48,052	Do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,772
Pamur Taluk of Kalastri Zemindari in Nellore ...	Included under Nellore.		Do, ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	522
Madras	397,552	28,910	Government and Inam.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27
Sundur in Bellary.	14,986	Not known.	Zemindari	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	145
Banganapalli in Kurnool	45,208	Do.	Do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	206
Maliahs in Ganjam.	131,112	Do.	Government	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,715
Jeypore and other Hill Tracts in Vizagapatam ...	451,640	Do.	Zemindari	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13,041
Grand Total ...	31,418,329	7,127,072	.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	132,437

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS—(*Continued*).

Districts.	Amount of payment to Government including all charges for water.	Amount of local rates and cesses paid on land.	Total of two preceding columns.	Amount of rent including land cess paid by cultivators.	Percentage of agriculturist on the total population.	Average number of persons dependent on each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average number of acres cultivated by each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivable area.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivated area.	Average incidence of local rates and cess (column 18) per acre of cultivated land.	Average incidence of rent (column 20) paid per cultivated acre.
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Bellary ... ... Government	21,23,138	3,04,292	24,27,430	24,27,430	22·5	4·4	9·2	0·9	0·9	0·1	1·0
Inam	2,30,220	1,12,104	3,42,324	10,09,988				0·3	0·3	0·1	0·9
Zemindars	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
Total ...	23,53,358	4,16,396	27,69,754	34,37,418	...	...	...	0·7	0·8	0·1	1·0
Chingleput ... ... Government	15,19,793	2,61,139	17,80,932	17,80,932	22·8	4·4	2·9	2·8	3·4	0·6	4·0
Inam	1,01,178	24,126	1,25,304	4,39,606				0·6	1·3	0·2	3·8
Zemindars	1,07,091	12,133	1,19,224	2,58,771				0·7	1·5	0·2	3·3
Total ...	17,28,062	2,97,398	20,25,460	24,79,309	...	...	...	2·0	2·9	0·5	3·9
Coimbatore ... Government	25,05,049	1,66,182	26,71,231	26,71,231	22·4	4·4	5·9	1·1	1·2	0·1	1·3
Inam	34,408	22,742	57,150	2,37,175				0·3	3·9	0·1	0·8
Zemindars	27,781	4,351	32,132	81,471				0·3	0·5	0·1	1·3
Total ...	25,67,238	1,93,275	27,60,513	29,89,877	...	...	...	1·0	1·1	0·1	1·2
Cuddapah ... ... Government	16,72,456	1,13,456	17,85,912	17,85,912	24·7	4·0	5·3	1·3	1·3	0·1	1·4
Inam	1,69,453	60,076	2,29,529	9,02,079				0·5	0·5	0·1	1·7
Zemindars	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
Total ...	18,41,909	1,73,532	20,15,441	26,87,991	...	...	...	1·1	1·2	0·1	1·5
Ganjam ... ... Government	5,72,497	63,943	6,36,440	6,36,440	23·6	4·2	3·4	2·0	1·9	0·2	2·2
Inam	57,117	17,058	14,175	2,72,928				0·6	0·6	0·2	2·4
Zemindars	4,83,743	1,21,789	6,05,532	21,70,173				0·7	0·8	0·2	2·9
Total ...	11,13,357	2,02,790	13,16,147	30,79,541	...	...	...	1·0	1·1	0·2	2·7
Godavari ... ... Government	24,06,681	2,17,061	26,23,742	26,23,742	24·3	4·1	3·5	3·1	4·5	0·4	4·9
Inam	5,89,677	1,40,587	7,30,264	14,52,377				1·6	2·4	0·5	4·8
Zemindars	9,62,300	87,013	10,49,313	27,45,466				1·5	1·9	0·2	5·0
Total ...	39,58,658	4,44,661	44,03,319	68,01,585	...	...	...	2·2	3·1	0·3	4·9

Kistna	Government ...	30,92,839	2,87,002	33,79,841	33,79,841	21·1	4·7	7·9	1·7	2·1	0·2	2·3
	Inam ...	2,22,090	62,586	2,84,676	7,90,843				0·4	0·6	0·1	1·7
	Zemindars ...	3,39,847	34,188	3,74,035	11,84,507				0·5	0·7	0·0	2·2
	Total ...	36,54,776	3,83,776	40,38,552	53,55,191	...	...	...	1·2	1·5	0·2	2·2
Kurnool	Government ...	12,60,833	1,45,996	14,06,829	14,06,829	23·2	4·3	9·5	1·0	1·0	0·1	1·2
	Inam ...	4,00,944	1,02,849	5,03,793	6,81,039				0·4	0·5	0·1	0·7
	Zemindars ...	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
	Total ...	16,61,777	2,48,845	19,10,622	20,87,868	...	...	...	0·8	0·8	0·1	1·0
Madura	Government ...	14,80,823	76,509	15,57,332	15,57,332	26·4	3·7	3·5	1·7	1·9	0·1	2·0
	Inam	32,980	15,331	48,311	2,35,599				0·4	0·5	0·1	1·7
	Zemindars ...	1,72,929	21,743	1,94,672	5,56,131				0·4	0·6	...	1·7
	Total ...	16,86,732	1,13,583	18,00,315	23,49,062	...	...	...	1·2	1·5	0·1	1·9
Malabar	Government ...	17,88,793	1,96,943	19,85,736	19,85,736	21·7	4·5	2·3	2·3	2·3	0·2	1·7
	Inam	2,552	2,337	4,889	4,889				1·3	1·3	0·2	0·4
	Zemindars ...	5,000	130	5,130	5,130				1·6	1·5	...	1·9
	Total ...	17,96,345	1,99,410	19,95,755	19,95,755	...	...	...	2·3	2·3	0·2	1·7
Nellore	Government ...	16,86,119	2,16,427	19,02,546	19,02,546	24·3	4·1	4·1	1·8	2·2	0·3	2·5
	Inam ...	2,03,372	49,836	2,53,208	5,75,253				0·5	0·8	0·1	1·7
	Zemindars ...	23,598	63,754	87,352	68,750				0·5	0·5	1·4	1·5
	Total ...	19,13,089	3,30,017	22,43,106	25,46,549	...	...	...	1·4	1·8	0·3	2·2
Nilgiris	Government ...	36,471	1,278	37,749	37,749	22·1	4·5	4·4	0·6	0·8	...	0·7
	Inam	...	51	51	...				...	...	...	...
	Zemindars ...	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
	Total ...	36,471	1,329	37,800	37,749	...	...	...	0·6	0·8	...	0·7
North Arcot	Government ...	18,67,383	1,76,612	20,43,995	20,43,995	23·0	4·3	2·5	2·6	2·9	0·3	3·2
	Inam ...	90,464	21,373	1,11,837	4,05,441				0·9	1·3	0·1	2·8
	Zemindars ...	5,04,826	71,744	5,76,570	14,40,542				0·8	1·5	0·2	3·6
	Total ...	24,62,673	2,69,729	27,32,402	38,89,978	...	...	...	1·7	2·3	0·3	3·3
Salem	Government ...	17,12,343	1,92,334	19,04,677	19,04,677	23·1	4·3	4·1	1·4	1·4	0·1	1·5
	Inam	69,086	19,554	88,640	2,93,600				0·4	0·4	0·1	1·7
	Zemindars ...	4,46,001	42,159	4,88,160	8,90,893				0·7	0·9	0·1	1·7
	Total ...	22,27,430	2,54,047	24,81,477	30,89,170	...	...	...	1·1	1·1	0·1	1·6
South Arcot	Government ...	91,46,535	2,17,054	33,63,589	33,63,589	26·2	3·8	2·8	2·5	2·7	0·2	2·9
	Inam ...	42,905	23,147	66,052	2,14,765				0·9	1·1	0·2	1·9
	Zemindars ...	8,599	1,508	10,107	27,350				0·8	0·9	0·2	3·0
	Total ...	31,98,039	2,41,709	34,39,748	36,05,704	...	...	...	2·4	2·6	0·2	2·8
South Canara ...	Government ...	12,22,372	87,187	13,09,559	13,09,559	23·7	4·2	1·7	3·6	3·5	0·3	3·8
	Inam	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
	Zemindars ...	...	...	...	...				...	...	...	...
	Total ...	12,22,372	87,187	13,09,559	13,09,559	...	...	...	3·6	3·5	0·3	3·8

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS—(*Continued*).

Districts.	Amount of payment to Government including all charges for water.	Amount of local rates and cesses paid on land.	Total of two preceding columns.	Amount of rent including land cess paid by cultivators.	Percentage of agriculturist on the total population.	Average number of persons dependent on each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average number of acres cultivated by each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivable area.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivated area.	Average incidence of local rates and cess (colmnn 18) per acre of cultivated land.	Average incidence of rent (column 20) paid for cultivated acre.
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Tanjore ... ... Government ...	38,87,315	1,96,532	40,83,847	40,83,847	21·6	4·6	3·0	3·8	4·1	0·2	4·3
Inam ...	1,29,046	97,452	2,26,498	11,05,829				6·3	0·6	0·3	4·0
Zemindars ...	25,461	9,539	35,000	88,196				0·2	0·3	0·1	1·2
Total ...	40,41,822	3,03,523	43,45,345	52,77,872	...	...	...	2·6	3·1	0·2	4·1
Tinnevelly ... ... Government ...	21,57,639	1,22,274	22,79,913	22,79,913	19·3	5·1	5·4	1·7	2·2	0·1	2·4
Inam	1,09,183	20,310	1,29,493	4,14,660				0·6	0·7	0·1	2·2
Zemindars ...	3,10,616	41,105	3,51,721	8,53,121				0·4	0·4	...	1·3
Total ...	25,77,438	1,83,689	27,61,127	35,47,694	...	...	...	1·2	1·5	0·1	2·0
Trichinopoly ... Government ...	13,72,437	2,69,844	16,42,281	16,42,281	24·2	4·1	4·1	1·4	1·5	0·3	1·8
Inam	44,081	20,251	64,332	2,19,166				0·6	0·7	0·1	1·4
Zemindars ...	51,911	18,579	70,490	2,79,430				0·2	0·4	0·1	1·7
Total ...	14,68,429	3,08,674	17,77,103	21,40,877	...	...	...	1·0	1·5	0·2	1·8
Vizagapatam ... ... Government ...	2,50,545	18,876	2,69,421	2,69,421	26·4	3·8	1·9	2·2	2·4	0·2	2·6
Inam ...	19,971	6,598	26,569	1,01,978				0·1	0·1	0·6	0·4
Zemindars ...	10,28,596	81,131	11,09,727	35,63,529				1·7	1·8	0·1	6·2
Total ...	12,99,112	1,06,605	14,05,717	39,34,923	...	...	...	1·5	1·5	0·1	4·3
Total ... Government ...	357,62,061	33,30,941	390,93,002	390,93,002	23·3	4·2	4·5	1·3	1·9	0·2	2·1
Inam	25,48,727	8,18,368	33,67,095	93,37,210				0·5	0·6	0·1	1·7
Zemindars ...	44,98,299	6,10,866	51,09,165	142,13,416				0·8	1·9	9·1	3·0
Total ...	428,09,087	47,60,175	475,69,262	626,43,672	...	...	...	1·4	1·6	0·2	2·2

STATEMENT VI.—PARTICULARS AS TO LAND REVENUE TAXATION, &c., IN THE DIFFERENT DISTRICTS—(*Continued*).

Districts.	Amount of payment to Government including all charges for water.	Amount of local rates and cesses paid on land.	Total of two preceding columns.	Amount of rent including land cess paid by cultivators.	Percentage of agriculturist on the total population.	Average number of persons dependent on each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average number of acres cultivated by each male agriculturist above 12 years of age.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivable area.	Average incidence of amount of payment specified in column 17 per acre of revenue paying cultivated area.	Average incidence of local rates and cess (column 18) per acre of cultivated land.	Average incidence of rent (column 20) paid per cultivated acre.
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.				RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Ramnad in Madura—Zemindari ...	3,14,006	34,384	3,48,390	7,33,533	25·0	3·9	...	...	...	...	...
Shevagunga in Madura. } Zemindari ...	2,88,317	39,748	3,28,065	8,47,975	25·5	3·9	...	...	...	...	...
Vankatagherry Zemindari in Nellore. } Zemindari ...	4,01,160	43,916	4,45,076	8,18,559	29·1	4·9	...	...	...	...	...
Madras	...	...	...	...	7·2	13·7	...	...	...	...	...
Pamur Taluk of Kalastri Zemindari in Nellore. } Zemindari ...	Included under North Arcot.	8,730	8,730	1,72,292	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madras	80,847	...	80,847	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sundur in Bellary	...	...	...	Not known.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Banganapally in Kurnool...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maliahs in Ganjam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jeypore in Vizagapatam	16,000	...	16,000	Not known.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Grand Total ...	439,09,417	48,86,953	487,96,370	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

STATEMENT VII.—SHOWING THE LAND-REVENUE DEMAND PER ACRE IN EACH DISTRICT EXCEPT SOUTH CANARA DIVIDED ACCORDING TO DRY AND WET LAND.

Districts.	Dry.						Wet.					
	Extent.	Assessment.	Average.				Extent.	Assessment including additional second-crop Assessment and Water-tax.	Average.			
	ACRES.	RS.	RS.	A.	P.		ACRES.	RS.	RS.	A.	P.	
Ganjam	102,975	1,33,882	1	4	10		171,140	5,00,662	2	14	9	
Vizagapatam	49,048	51,864	1	0	11		22,051	1,17,592	5	5	4	
Godavari	227,790	4,73,901	2	1	3		273,535	16,96,550	6	3	3	
Kistna	1,431,909	21,33,895	1	8	5		157,008	9,24,310	5	14	2	
Nellore	576,346	6,95,084	1	3	4		170,572	9,71,057	5	11	1	
Cuddapah	1,124,005	8,63,098	0	12	3		101,077	8,27,017	8	2	11	
Bellary	2,266,808	14,53,185	0	10	3		101,816	6,47,937	6	5	9	
Kurnool	1,165,281	11,02,434	0	15	2		25,530	2,23,490	8	14	1	
Chingleput	151,038	2,27,382	1	8	1		236,681	10,20,786	4	5	0	
North Arcot	352,594	4,98,092	1	6	17		184,704	11,98,941	6	7	10	
South Arcot	746,722	12,99,753	1	11	10		263,329	16,63,958	6	5	1	
Tanjore	226,221	2,81,358	1	3	1		708,480	36,94,283	5	3	5	
Trichinopoly	673,233	6,58,570	0	15	8		128,255	6,75,476	5	4	3	
Madura	627,873	8,32,018	1	5	12		134,278	6,04,376	4	8	0	
Tinnevelly	788,320	6,88,601	0	13	1		148,676	15,59,195	10	7	9	
Coimbatore	1,934,144	17,53,913	0	14	6		84,407	6,36,760	7	8	8	
Nilgiris	48,564	32,475	0	10	8		40	90	2	4	0	
Salem	1,059,863	12,09,943	1	2	3		87,733	4,98,528	5	10	11	
Total ...	13,552,733	144,39,448	1	1	0		2,999,312	167,40,369	5	9	3	
Malabar	390,034	6,20,395	1	5	9		386,430	11,64,640	3	0	3	

STATEMENT VIII.—LOCATION AND PAY OF TAHSILDARS AND DEPUTY TAHSILDARS.

[Referred to under the heading "Administration of the Land."]

Districts and Taluks.	Head Quarters.	Pay.
		RS.
ARCOT, NORTH.		
Chittur	Chittur	175
Chandragiri	Chandragiri	150
Palmanair	Palmanair	150
Vellore	Vellore	175
Wallajapet	Wallajapet	250
Gudiyatam	Gudiyatam	175
Arcot	Arcot	225
Polur	Polur	150
Wandiwash	Wandiwash	200
ARCOT, SOUTH.		
Tindivanam	Tindivanam	225
Villupuram	Villupuram	250
Chilambaram	Chilambaram	250
Trinomalai	Trinomalai	150
Virudachalam	Virudachalam	200
Tirukoilur	Ellavanasur	200
Kallakurchi	Kallakurchi	175
Cuddalore	Cuddalore	225
BELLARY.		
Bellary	Bellary	225
Hospet	Hospet	175
Penukonda	Penukonda	150
Gooty	Gooty	200
Tadpatri	Tadpatri	200
Anantapur	Anantapur	175
Hindupur	Hindupur	150
Kudligi	Kudligi	175
Harpanahalli	Harpanahalli	150
Allur	Allur	175
Adoni	Adoni	200
Raidroog	Raidroog	175
Dharmavaram	Dharmavaram	200
Madaksira	Madaksira	150
Havinhudgalli Taluk	Havinhudgalli	150
CANARA, SOUTH.		
Mangalore	Mangalore	200
Cassergode	Cassergode	225
Uppinangadi	Uppinangadi	175
Udipi	Udipi	225
Kandapur	Kandapur	150
CHINGLEPUT.		
Madhurantakam	Madhuruntakam	225
Conjeveram	Conjeveram	200
Saidapet	Saidapet	175
Tiruvallur	Tiruvallur	175
Chingleput	Chingleput	175
Ponneri	Ponneri	150
MADRAS.		
Madras	Madras	150
COIMBATORE.		
Erode	Erode	225
Coimbatore	Coimbatore	200
Satyamangalam	Satyamangalam	200
Palladam	Palladam	225
Pollachi	Pollachi	175
Bhavani	Bhavani	150
Dharapuram	Dharapuram	200
Udamalpetai	Udamalpetai	175
Karur	Karur	175
Collegal	Collegal	150
CUDDAPAH.		
Badvel	Badvel	150
Pulivendala	Pulivendala	175
Sidhout	Sidhout	150
Pullampet	Pullampet	200
Cuddapah	Cuddapah	225
Rayachoti	Rayachoti	175
Kadiri	Kadiri	175
Vayalpad	Vayalpad	175
Madhanapalle	Madhanapalle	175
Jammulamadugu	Jammulamadugu	200
Proddutur	Proddutur	175
GANJAM.		
Chicacole	Chicacole	175
Goomsur	Russelkonda	150
Berhampore	Berhampore	200
GODAVARI.		
Rajahmundry	Rajahmundry	175
Amalapuram	Amalapuram	200
Ramachandrapuram	Ramachandrapuram	250
Ellore	Ellore	175
Narsapur	Narsapur	225
Peddapuram	Peddapuram	150
Yernagudem	Yernagudem	150
Tanuku	Tanuku	200
Bhimavaram	Bhimavaram	175
Bhadrachalam	Bhadrachalam	120
KISTNÁ.		
Repalle	Repalle	250
Bunder	Bunder	175
Bapatla	Bapatla	225
Guntoor	Guntoor	225
Bezwada	Bezwada	150
Nandigama	Nandigama	150
Narsaraopet	Rajapet	200
Sattanapalle	Krossur	175
Palnad	Gurazalah	200
Vinukonda	Vinukonda	150
Gudivada	Gurajah	200
KURNOOL.		
Sirvail	Sirvail	150
Nandikotkur	Nandikotkur	175
Koilkuntla	Koilkuntla	200
Ramallakota	Ramallakota	200
Markapur	Markapur	150
Nandial	Nandial	200
Cumbum	Cumbum	150
Pattikonda	Pattikonda	175
MADURA.		
Tirumangalam	Tirumangalam	200
Madura	Madura	225
Melur	Melur	175
Dindigul	Dindigul	200
Periyakulam	Periyakulam	150
Pulney	Pulney	175
MALABAR.		
Calicut	Chevayur	175
Palghat	Palghat	200
Cochin	Cochin	150
Cherakal	Cherakal	175
Ponani	Ponani	225
Kurambranad	Poyoli	200
Ernad	Ernad	200
Valuvanad	Cherupallacheri	200
Wynad	Wynad	200
Kotayam	Kuttuparamba	175

STATEMENT VIII.—LOCATION AND PAY OF TAHSILDARS AND DEPUTY TAHSILDARS—(*Continued*).

Districts and Taluks.	Head Quarters.	Pay.
NELLORE.		RS.
Nellore	Nellore	225
Gudur	Gudur	200
Rapur	Rapur	150
Atmakur	Atmakur	175
Kavali	Kavali	175
Udayagiri	Udayagiri	150
Ongole	Ongole	200
Kandukur	Kandukur	175
Kanyagiri	Kanyagiri	150
SALEM.		
Salem	Salem	250
Namkal	Namkal	225
Atur	Atur	200
Oosoor	Oosoor	200
Dharmapuri	Dharmapuri	175
Tirupatur	Tirupatur	200
Krishnagiri	Krishnagiri	150
Trichengode	Trichengode	225
Utankarai	Utankarai	150
TANJORE.		
Tanjore	Tanjore	250
Negapatam	Negapatam	250
Nannilam	Nannilam	250
Combaconum	Combaconum	250
Mayavaram	Mayavaram	225
TANJORE—(*Contd.*)		
Tiruturaipundi	Tiruturaipundi	225
Shiyali	Shiyali	150
Puttukotai	Puttukotai	175
Mannargudi	Mannargudi	200
TINNEVELLY.		
Ambasamudram	Ambasamudram	225
Tenkarai	Tenkarai	250
Nanguneri	Nanguneri	200
Ottaipidaram	Ottaipidaram	150
Satur	Satur	150
Srivilliputtur	Srivilliputtur	200
Tenkasi	Tenkasi	175
Sankaranainarkoil	Sankaranainarkoil	200
Tinnevelly	Tinnevelly	225
TRICHINOPOLY.		
Trichinopoly	Trichinopoly	250
Kulitalai	Kulitalai	200
Musiri	Musiri	225
Udiarpolliem	Udiarpolliem	150
Perambalur	Perambalur	175
VIZAGAPATAM.		
Golgonda	Narsapatam	150
Sarvasiddhi	Ellamanchili	150

DEPUTY TAHSILDARS.

Districts and Divisions.	Pay	Districts and Divisions.	Pay.
ARCOT, NORTH.	RS.	**CANARA, SOUTH.**	RS.
Narainvaram	100	Bantwal	70
Kalahasti	100	Neleshwar	70
Maderpaukum	70	Bettangode	70
Tirutani	100	Karikal	70
Punganur	100	Amindivi Island	70
Kangundi	100		
Venkatagirikottah	70	**CHINGLEPUT.**	
Arni	70		
ARCOT, SOUTH.		Conjeveram	100
		Sriperumbudur	70
Munnargoodi	70	Tiruporur	70
Bhavanigiri	70	Sathiavadu	70
Vanoor	70	Poonamallee	70
Tittagoodi	70	Ootramullur	100
Gingi	70		70
Chengum	70		
Triverdi	70	**COIMBATORE.**	
Oolunderpett	70		
Merkanum	70	Mettapolliem	70
		Talavady	70
BELLARY.		Perundurai	70
		Avanashi	70
Sirguppah	70	Kangayam	70
Ramandroog	70	Aravacoorchy	70
Kampli	70		
Ooravaconda	70	**CUDDAPAH.**	
Yemiganoor	70		
Royacheruvu	70	Chitwail	70
Kalliandroog	100	Kamalapuram	70
Bukkapatnam	70	Pelair	70

STATEMENT VIII.—LOCATION AND PAY OF TAHSILDARS AND DEPUTY TAHSILDARS—(*Continued*).

Districts and Divisions.	Pay.
GANJAM.	RS.
Parla Kimedi	100
Tekkali	100
Itchapore	100
Purushotapur	100
Aska	100
Narsannapet	70
Ganjam	70
Sompet	50
Surada	100
MALIAH.	
Balliguda	250
Ramagiri	200
Udayagiri	200
GODAVARI.	
Cocanada	100
Pithapuram	100
Tuni	100
Kottapalle or Rughudevapuram	100
Polaveram	100
Alamur	70
Yeleswaram or Prodipadu	70
Chintalapudi	70
Sivakodu	70
Kottapetta	70
Pintapadu	70
KISTNA.	
Vissunnapatam	100
Nuzvid	100
Tenali	70
Ponnar	70
Mangalagiri	70
Tunamurukodu	70
Kykalur	70
Avingudda	70
Jaggayyapet	70
KURNOOL.	
Peapally	70
Kurnool	70
Atmakur	70
Calwa	70
Owk	70
MADURA.	
Oosilamputty	70
Tiruchulai	100
Mutukolatur	70
Ramnad	100
Tiruvadany	70
Shivaganga	100
Tiruppatur	100
Nelacottah	70
Vedasundoor	70
Chinnammanur	70
Kodaikanal Hills	100

Districts and Divisions.	Pay.
MALABAR.	RS.
Cannanore	100
Talliparamba	70
Kuttuparamba	70
Quilandi	70
Tirurungady	70
Betutnad	70
Chowghat	70
Cherpulsherry	70
Allatur	70
Vyteri	125
Anjengo	70
Tangacherry	70
Bettatpudiandady	70
NILGIRI.	
Coonoor	70
Gudalur	125
NELLORE.	
Alluru	70
Addanki	70
Venkatagiri	100
Palur	100
Podili	100
Darsi	100
Kota	70
SALEM.	
Shervaroy Hills	150
Paramaty	70
Sankaridroog	70
Tharamungalum	70
Vaniambadi	70
Denkankotai	70
Razipur	70
Pennagarum	70
Haroor	70
TANJORE.	
Tanjore	100
Vallam	70
Combaconum	100
Adutural	70
Kodavasil	70
Negapatam	100
Tiruvalur	70
Tranquebar	70
Vedaraniem	70
Nidamangalam	70
Arantangi	70
Tiruvadi	70
TINNEVELLY.	
Palamcottah	100
Kulasekharapatam	100
Villathicolum	70
Tuticorin	100
Kaitor	70
Virudupati	70
Watrap	70
Radapuram	70

STATEMENT VIII.—LOCATION AND PAY OF TAHSILDARS AND DEPUTY TAHSILDARS—(*Continued*).

Districts and Divisions.	Pay.	Districts and Divisions.	Pay.
	RS.		RS.
TRICHINOPOLY.		**VIZAGAPATAM—(*Continued*).**	
	100		
Laulgoody	100	Bimlipatam	100
Turaiyur	100	Vizianagram	100
Mannalparai	70	Gajapatinagar	70
Kilapalur	70	Salur	100
		Bobbili	100
		Chipurupalle	70
VIZAGAPATAM.		Parvatipur	100
		Gumpur	150
Palkonda	70	Rayagudda	100
Anakapalle	70	Kottapad	100
Veeruvilli	70	Mulkagheri	100
Vizagapatam	100	Koraput	100
Srungavarapucotta	100	Navarangapur	100

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE.

[*Referred to under the heading "Administration of the Land."*]

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
		Government Taluk.			RS.	
Bellary.	Collector, Bellary ...	1. Bellary	985	182,244	2,97,582	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Gooty.	1. Adoni	805	181,583	2,60,907	
		2. Alur	677	98,230	2,76,953	
		3. Gooty	1,014	144,568	2,21,631	
		4. Tadpatry	772	117,211	1,76,153	
		Total ...	3,268	541,592	9,35,644	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Pennacondah.	1. Pennaconda	654	88,754	1,28,020	
		2. Hindupara	481	87,895	1,40,273	
		3. Madakasira	439	79,458	1,22,625	
		Total ...	1,574	256,107	3,90,918	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Hospett.	1. Huvanadgalli	623	89,538	1,42,731	
		2. Harpanahalli	592	85,729	1,15,472	
		3. Hospett	540	93,424	1,56,398	
		Total ...	1,755	268,691	4,14,601	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Bellary.	1. Kudlighi	864	93,228	1,12,609	
		2. Raidroog	890	87,779	1,57,367	
		Total ...	1,754	181,007	2,69,976	
		Grand Total ...	11,351	1,653,010	26,14,833	
	Temporary Deputy Collector, Anantapore.	1. Anantapore	789	102,761	1,40,779	
		2. Dharmaveram	1,226	120,608	1,65,333	
		Total ...	2,015	223,369	3,06,112	
		Government Taluk.				
Chingleput.	Collector, Saidapet ...	1. Trivellore	443	149,898	2,81,794	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Chingleput.	1. Chingleput	474	132,328	2,22,376	
		2. Madurantakum	635	197,308	4,22,563	
		3. Conjeveram	447	168,036	4,05,905	
		Total ...	1,556	497,672	10,50,844	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Saidapet.	1. Saidapet	308	186,404	2,52,384	
		2. Ponneri	312	104,210	2,11,403	
		Total ...	620	290,614	4,63,787	
		Grand Total ...	2,619	938,184	17,96,425	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
					Rs.	
Coimbatore.	Collector, Coimbatore ...	*Government Taluk.*				
		1. Coimbatore	625	243,995	3,09,270	
	Sub-Collector, Erode.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Karur	564	175,659	2,70,264	
		2. Dharapuram	775	217,493	3,36,121	
		3. Bhavani	582	102,813	1,09,808	
		4. Erode	595	233,564	3,95,510	
		Total ...	2,516	729,529	11,11,703	
	Head Assistant Collector, Pollachy.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Udamalpetai	365	123,650	1,98,675	
		2. Palladam	741	237,808	3,76,266	
		9. Pollachi	428	167,546	2,14,984	
		Total ...	1,534	529,004	7,89,925	
	General Deputy Collector, Sattiamungalam.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Collegal	738	90,830	86,345	
		2. Sattiamungalam	966	169,916	3,24,742	
		Total ...	1,704	260,746	4,11,087	
		Grand Total ...	6,379	1,763,274	26,21,985	
Cuddapah.	Collector, Cuddapah ...	1. Cuddapah	1,207	163,013	2,35,064	
	Sub-Collector, Madanapalli.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Royachoti	649	128,162	1,59,013	
		2. Kadiri	1,442	140,948	1,55,760	
		3. Voilpaud	708	145,591	1,91,157	
		4. Madanapalli	631	135,468	2,10,648	
		Total ...	3,430	550,169	7,16,578	
	Head Assistant Collector, Cuddapah.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Jammalmadugu	670	109,965	2,03,116	
		2. Proddatur	343	102,744	1,89,005	
		3. Pulivendla	579	110,405	1,72,855	
		Total ...	1,592	323,114	5,64,976	
	General Deputy Collector, Cuddapah.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Budwail	704	93,051	1,38,389	
		2. Sidhout	508	76,667	1,17,940	
		3. Pullampet	609	145,180	2,06,424	
		Total ...	1,821	314,898	4,62,753	
		Grand Total ...	8,050	1,351,194	19,79,371	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
		Government Taluk.			Rs.	
		1. Gumsur	277¾	157,960	1,95,763	A portion of the Magisterial charge of Gumsur Taluk is under the Senior Assistant.
		Zemindaries.				
		2. Surada	46	15,324	4,000	
		3. Attigada	149⅝	77,228	60,000	
	Collector, Chetterpore...	4. Palur	16 6/16	4,173	553	
		5. Humma	5	2,754	1,171	
		6. Beridi	14¾	10,960	4,500	
		7. Kallikotta	84	42,589	19,000	
		Total ...	593 3/16	310,988	2,84,987	
		Government Taluk.				
		1. Chicacole	279¼	200,655	2,48,698	
		Zemindari Estates.				
		2. Sreekurmana of Vizianagaram in Vizagapatam.	17⅜	16,927	...*	*The revenue is included in that of Vizianagram in the Vizagapatam District.
		3. Karakavalasa	9 1/16	7,795	4,048	
		4. Mungalavalasa	5½	3,695	4,048	
		5. Gottipalli	6¼	4,351	4,049	
		6. Takkali Estates	61 9/16	58,054	49,088	
		7. Tarla	28½	24,639	4,000	
		8. Chackipalli	1¼	1,018	869	
		9. Konsalacottur	1¼	574	393	
		10. Tarlepatta	1¼	388	256	
		11. Chinnatangam	1¼	395	424	
		12. Peddatangam	6/16	564	424	
		13. Tallavalasa	1¼	347	424	
		14. Jarangi	2¾	2,336	1,002	
	Principal Assistant Collector, Chicacole.	15. Yellamanchilli	1	643	654	
		16. Beddam	1⅜	217	89	
		17. Belamarapalavalasa ...	2⅜	855	1,043	
		18. Gopalapuram	5	5,165	3,699	
		19. Chittivalasa	7 7/16	5,698	2,074	
		20. Parlakemedi	451½	252,391	82,139	
		21. Urlam	14⅛	11,061	1,582	
		22. Danta	4 1/16	3,220	2,309	
		23. Tilaru	15⅝	6,180	3,654	
		24. Towdam	2⅜	1,080	686	
		25. Akkayavalasa	1	788	278	
		26. Santalaksimipuram ...	7 1/16	485	1,192	
		27. Talasamudram	1⅜	923	2,383	
		28. Lusaram	¼	320	332	
		29. Rajapuram	2/16	266	76	
		30. Seddibeharakuttur ...	¼	109	103	
		31. Jonnupadu	5/16	138	93	
		32. Malgam	1 0/16	916	572	
		Maliahs.				
		33. Parla Kimedi Maliah Tracts.	...	19,201	...†	†Area not known. The revenue is included in that shown for the Parla Kimedi Zemindari above.
		Total ...	932 1/16	631,344	4,32,681	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
Ganjam—(*Continued*).	Senior Assistant Collector, Berhampore.	*Government Taluk.*			RS.	
		1. Berhampore	399	243,685	3,19,322	The Magisterial charge of a portion of the Berhampore Taluk remains with the Collector.
		Zemindaries.				
		2. Daraskota	50¼	31,262	25,000	
		3. Seerghar	20¾	9,595	5,500	
		4. Chinna Kimedi	55 5/16	28,849	20,000	
		5. Aska	31 9/16	7,712	4,857	
		6. Davabhumy	4	3,539	5,188	
		7. Kurla	3⅜	5,457	5,455	
		8. Pedda Kimedi	78 7/16	40,810	23,500	
		9. Chicati	64½	40,789	34,000	
		10. Surangi	14⅜	12,919	3,500	
		11. Jorada	9	5,813	2,000	
		12. Jalantra	25½	18,450	7,000	
		13. Barwa	10¼	8,454	7,800	
		14. Mandusa	35⅜	34,508	14,000	
		15. Budarasinghi	4¼	3,244	500	
		Maliahs.				
		16. Pedda Kimedi, Surange, Budarasinghi, Jarada, and Mandusa Maliahs.	...	26,937	...	
		Total ...	779 1/16	522,023	4,77,622	
	Special Assistant Collector, Russelkonda, in the low country, Beeligooda in the Maliahs.	*Maliah Tracts.*				
		1. Gumsur Maliahs ...	...	28,364	...	Area and revenue not known.
		2. Chockapad, Chali, Pasara, and Gatigudu of the Gumsur Taluk.	...	7,202	...	
		3. Surada and Kuttingia Maliah and the portions of Chinna Kimedi Maliahs.	...	73,551	...	Revenue not known. Population of these Maliahs is included in that of the Zemindaries to which the Maliahs belong.
		4. Chinna Kimedi and Bodigada Maliahs.	...	...	...	
		Total ...	...	109,117	50	
		Grand Total ...	2,304 1/16	1,573,472	11,95,340	
Godavari.	Collector, Cocanada.	*Government Taluk.*				
		1. Peddapur	505	111,489	2,35,551	
		Zemindaries.				
		2. Pittapore	188	79,606	3,41,627	
		3. Cocanada	168	66,944		
		4. Coringa		24,916		
		5. Tuni	376	50,201		
		6. Badrachallum and Rakapalli.	885	27,695	090	
		Total ...	2,122	3,60,851	5,98,168	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
					Rs.	
Godavari—(*Continued*).	Sub-Collector, Rajahmundry.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Rajahmundry	2,058	128,901	1,57,303	
		2. Amalapur	437	206,885	5,79,741	
		3. Ramachandrapur	507	203,583	8,34,842	
		Total ...	3,002	539,369	15,71,886	
	Head Assistant Collector, Ellore.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Ellore	729	136,875	2,19,794	
		2. Ernagoodam	1,249	145,715	1,95,217	
		3. Tanuku	366	167,491	6,16.189	
		Total ...	2,344	450,081	10,31,200	
	General Deputy Collector, Narasapur.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Narasapur	450	177,876	5,74,821	
		2. Bhimaveram	416	92,457	4,36,216	
		Total ...	866	270,333	10,11,037	
		Grand Total ...	8,334	1,620,634	42,12,391	
Kistna.	Collector, Masulipatam.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Gudivada	533	87,138	4,49,508	
		2. Bandar	687	164,525	3,10,021	
		Total ...	1,220	251,663	7,59,529	
	Sub-Collector, Guntoor.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Bapatla	694	143,629	5,90,405	
		2. Guntoor	500	126,997	4,07,008	
		3. Sattanapalli	621	101,728	3,69,704	
		4. Repalli	622	169,912	6,45,838	
		Total ...	2,437	542,266	20,12,955	
	Head Assistant Collector, Bezwada.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Nandigama	599	106,452	2,04,247	
		2. Bezwada	406	83,081	1,57,092	
		Zemindaries.				
		3. Nuzvid	561	107,465	1,08,221	
		4. Virsanapetah	257	55,662	20,829	
		Total ...	1,823	352,660	4,90,389	
	General Deputy Collector, Vinnucondah.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Narasarowpettah	682	120,619	3,40,585	
		2. Palnad	1,095	120,658	3,31,703	
		3. Vinnucondah	561	64,508	1,47,204	
		Total ...	2,338	305,785	8,19,492	
		Grand Total ...	7,818	1,452,374	40,82,365	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
		Government Taluks.			RS.	
Karnool.	Collector, Karnool ...	1. Nandikotkur	1,186	101,866	2,21,277	
		2. Ramalkota	836	146,195	1,81,541	
		Total ...	2,022	248,061	4,02,818	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Cumbum.	1. Cumbum	885	123,042	1,66,686	
		2. Markapur	1,039	92,665	1,01,160	
		Total ...	1,924	215,707	2,67,846	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Nandial.	1. Nandial	777	107,320	2,05,527	
		2. Sirwell	487	71,066	1,66,462	
		Total ...	1,264	178,386	3,71,989	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Peapalli.	1. Pattikondah	1,190	173,434	2,35,429	
		2. Koilkuntla	637	98,844	2,33,544	
		Total ...	1,827	272,278	4,68,973	
		Grand Total ...	7,037	914,432	15,11,626	
Madras.	Collector, Madras ...	1. Madras	27	397,552	78,437	
		Government Taluks.				
Madura.	Collector, Madura ...	1. Periacolum	1,200	217,418	2,65,063	* The Sub-Collector has the Magisterial charge of Pereakolum.
		2. Melur	514½	128,983	2,53,247	
		Total ...	1,714½	346,401	5,18,310	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Dindigul.	1. Dindigul	1,108¾	324,366	3,77,211	
		2. Palani	988¾	184,831	2,62,142	
		Total ...	2,097½	509,197	6,39,353	
		Zemindaries.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Ramnad.	1. Ramnad	2,351	504,131	3,38,686	
		2. Shevagunga	1,557	434,253	2,88,317	
		Total ...	3,908	938,384	6,27,003	
		Government Taluks.				
	Deputy Collector, Madura.	1. Madura	446¾	231,418	3,17,851	
		2. Terumangalum	618½	241,215	3,69,192	
		Total ...	1,064¾	472,633	6,87,043	
		Grand Total ...	8,784¾	22,66,615	24,71,709	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
		Government Taluks.			RS.	
Malabar.	Collector, Calicut ...	1. Calicut ... ... 2. Cochin	360 3	189,768 19,826	1,28,975 18,679	
		Total ...	363	209,594	1,47,654	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Tellicherry.	1. Cherikal ... ... 2. Kottiem ... ... 3. Kurambranad	671 460 527	257,377 143,561 243,751	2,13,652 99,948 2,09,306	
		Total ...	1,658	644,689	5,22,906	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Palghaut.	1. Palghaut ... ... 2. Ponani	681 450	325,855 374,756	2,77,905 3,08,853	
		Total ...	1,131	700,611	5,86,758	
		Government Taluks.				
	Special Assistant, Malapuram.	1. Ernaad ... ... 2. Valluvanad	997 932	287,936 292,482	2,00,555 2,47,229	
		Total ...	1,929	580,418	4,47,784	
		Government Taluk.				
	Deputy Collector, Manantoddy.	1. Wynad	891	100,719	1,11,279	
		Grand Total ...	5,972	2,236,031	18,16,381	
		Government Taluks.				
Nellore.	Collector, Nellore ...	1. Nellore* ... ... 2. Gudur	627 813	179,769 147,141	3,20,805 3,23,604	* The Magisterial charge under the Head Assistant Collector.
		Total ...	1,440	326,910	6,44,409	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Ongole ...	1. Ongole ... ... 2. Kandukur ... ... 3. Kanigiri	710 722 695	195,068 138,375 127,258	3,27,151 2,86,834 69,442	
		Zemindaries.				
		4. Darsi Division ... ... 5. Podile do.	488 405	73,139 62,934	... ...	} Revenues included under Venkatagiri.
		Total ...	3,020	596,774	6,83,427	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Nellore.	1. Kavali ... ... 2. Udayagiri ... ... 3. Atmakur	533 595 608	81,336 100,985 103,802	1,72,639 67,196 1,61,927	
		Total ...	1,736	286,123	4,01,762	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
Nellore—(*Continued*).	General Deputy Collector, Nuidoopet.	*Government Taluk.*			Rs.	
		1. Rapur	541	63,885	1,32,003	
		Zemindaries.				
		2. Venkatagiri	229	52,258	3,79,045	
		3. Polur Division	184	50,861	...	
		Total ...	954	167,004	5,11,048	
		Grand Total ...	7,150	1,376,811	22,40,646	
Nilgiris.	Commissioner, Ootacamund.	1. Nilgiris	1,224	74,719	46,049	
North Arcot.	Collector, Chittoor ...	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Chittoor*	965	213,045	2,52,348	*The taluks of Chittoor and Chendragiri are usually placed under the charge of an Assistant Collector, and if he leaves the district temporarily the Collector retains charge of the Chittoor Taluk, the Chendragiri Taluk being placed under the Head Assistant Collector.
		2. Palmanair	664	60,211	79,537	
		3. Chendragiri*	553	99,628	99,952	
		Zemindari.				
		4. Poonganoor	524	109,282	66,859	
		Total ...	2,706	482,166	4,98,696	
	Sub-Collector, Vellore...	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Arcot	379	157,391	3,23,685	
		2. Vellore	289	179,156	1,91,972	
		3. Gudiattum	443	162,980	2,48,216	
		Zemindari.				
		4. Kangundy	179	52,047	22,959	
		Total ...	1,290	551,574	7,86,852	
	Head Assistant Collector, Ranipet.	*Government Taluk.*				
		1. Wallajah	516	216,204	3,82,549	
		Zemindaries.				
		2. Calastry	602	135,104	1,76,816	
		3. Karvattinuggur	634	289,894	1,80,495	
		Total ...	1,752	641,202	7,39,860	
	General Deputy Collector, Arni.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Wandewash	413	153,507	3,56,291	
		2. Polur	330	109,150	2,01,450	
		Zemindari.				
		3. Arni Jaghire	170	77,679	5,933	
		Total ...	913	340,336	5,63,674	
		Grand Total ...	6,661	2,015,278	25,89,062	
Salem.	Collector, Salem ...	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Salem	993	393,805	4,56,871	
		2. Athur	798	164,006	2,21,393	
		Total ...	1,791	557,811	6,78,264	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
					Rs.	
Salem—(*Continued*).		*Government Taluks.*				
	Sub-Collector, Oossoor.	1. Oossoor	1,169	193,037	1,93,902	
		2. Kistnagiri	658	170,233	1,73,923	
		3. Darmapuri	998	190,626	1,92,215	
		Total ...	2,825	553,896	5,60,040	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Tripatore.	1. Tripatore	805	190,800	1,65,528	
		2. Uttengarai	808	153,801	1,29,081	
		Total ...	1,613	344,601	2,94,609	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Namakal.	1. Namakal	743	261,009	3,62,558	
		2. Trichengode	632	249,678	3,67,202	
		Total ...	1,375	510,687	7,29,760	
		Grand Total ...	7,604	1,966,995	22,62,673	
South Arcot.		*Government Taluk.*				
	Collector, Cuddalore ...	1. Cuddalore	459	284,849	4,04,793	
		Government Taluks.				
	Sub-Collector, Tindevanum.	1. Trinomalay	990	164,657	2,98,648	
		2. Tindevanum	810	239,754	5,53,798	
		3. Villapuram	611	236,108	4,70,541	
		Total ...	2,411	640,519	13,22,987	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Virdachellam.	1. Virdachellam	566	178,504	3,37,577	
		2. Chedambaram	393	239,133	6,70,712	
		Total ...	959	417,637	10,08,289	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Trikalore.	1. Trikalore	500	216,248	4,02,020	
		2. Kallakurichi	607	196,566	3,24,441	
		Total ...	1,107	412,812	7,26,461	
		Grand Total ...	4,936	1,755,817	34,62,530	
South Canara.		*Government Taluks.*				
	Collector, Mangalore ...	1. Mangalore	865	242,779	3,67,135	
		2. Uppenangadi	1,047	107,722	1,44,267	
		Total ...	1,912	350,501	5,11,402	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Kundapur.	1. Udipi	892	231,570	3,25,100	
		2. Kundapur	525	113,713	2,07,882	
		Total ...	1,417	345,283	5,32,982	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
South Canara—(*Contd.*).	Assistant Collector, Mangalore.	*Government Taluk.*			Rs.	
		1. Kassergode	1,064	222,578	2,43,195	
		Grand Total ...	4,393	918,362	12,87,579	
Tanjore.	Collector, Tanjore ...	.....	...	...	...	
	Sub-Collector, Negapatam.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Negapatam	242	200,733	3,98,251	
		2. Nannilam	294	207,407	7,02,225	
		Total ...	536	408,140	11,00,476	
	Head Assistant Collector Combaconum.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Tanjore ... ..., ...	635	344,339	5,95,456	
		2. Combaconum	341	341,034	7,66,649	
		Total ...	976	685,373	13,62,105	
	Assistant Collector, Tanjore.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Pattukotta	945	237,423	1,87,003	
	General Deputy Collector, Mayaveram.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Mayaveram	276	219,358	5,65,963	
		2. Shealli	170	107,459	2,72,933	
		Total ...	446	326,817	8,38,896	
	General Deputy Collector, Manargudi.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Manargudi	300	161,264	4,05,235	
		2. Tritrapoondy	536	154,714	3,39,658	
		Total ...	836	315,978	7,44,893	
		Grand Total ...	3,739	1,973,731	42,33,373	
Tinnevelly.	Collector, Palamcottah.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Tinnevelly	346	184,109	3,53,173	
	Sub-Collector, Tuticorin.	*Government Taluks.*				
		1. Ottapidaram	1,164	296,376	2,83,901	
		2. Tenkarai	456	234,346	5,54,434	
		Total ...	1,620	530,722	838,335	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—(*Continued*).

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
Tinnevelly—(*Continued*).		*Government Taluks.*			Rs.	
	Head Assistant Collector, Shermadavi.	1. Nangunery	604	178,078	3,84,445	
		2. Ambasamudram	303	163,215	4,23,403	
		3. Tenkasi	337	122,001	2,46,372	
		Total ...	1,244	463,294	10,54,220	
		Government Taluks.				
	General Deputy Collector, Sreevilliputtur.	1. Srivilliputtoor	533	176,954	3,28,845	
		2. Sattoor	463	156,862	2,13,717	
		3. Sankaranainarkovil ...	609	182,018	2,50,565	
		Total ...	1,605	515,834	7,98,127	
		Grand Total ...	4,815	1,693,959	30,38,855	
Trichinopoly.		*Government Taluk.*				
	Collector, Trichinopoly.	1. Trichinopoly	519	306,461	4,60,429	
		Government Taluks.				
	Head Assistant Collector, Museri.	1. Museri	931	257,174	3,44,411	
		2. Kulatalai	667	228,313	2,30,525	
		Total ...	1,598	485,487	5,74,936	
		Government Taluks.				
	Deputy Collector, Arealore.	1. Perambalore	690	170,567	2,40,960	
		2. Oodiarpoliem	777	237,893	2,36,144	
		Total ...	1,467	408,460	4,77,104	
		Grand Total ...	3,584	1,200,408	15,12,469	
Vizagapatam.		*Zemindaries.*				
	Collector, Vizagapatam.	1. Vizagapatam	216	90,467	...	
		2. Bimlipatam	243	113,079	...	
		3. Srungavarapukota ...	318	130,362	...	
		4. Chepudipalli	615	162,827	...	
		Total ..	1,392	496,735	...	
		Government Taluks.				
		1. Golakonda	874	26,720	1,02,374	
		2. Sarvasiddi	960	129,185	1,90,595	
		Zemindaries.				
	Principal Assistant Collector, Narasipatam.	3. Viravalli	688	166,184	...	
		4. Anakapalli	597	143,549	...	
		5. Hill tracts of Golcondah and Viravalli.	500	15,880	...	
		Total ...	3,619	481,518	2,92,969	

STATEMENT IX.—DESIGNATION OF THE DIFFERENT REVENUE DIVISIONAL OFFICERS, AND THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF THEIR TERRITORIAL CHARGE—*(Continued)*.

District.	Designation of Office and Head-quarter Station.	Taluks, Zemindaries and other separate Tracts forming the Charge.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Land Revenue.	Remarks.
Vizagapatam—*(Continued)*.		*Rented.*			Rs.	
		1. Palconda	432	191,908	...	
		Zemindaries.				
	Senior Assistant Collector, Vizianagram.	2. Parvatipoor	402	123,830	...	
		3. Vizianagaram	333	149,920	...	
		4. Gajapatinagarum ...	276	121,758	...	
		5. Bobilli	333	140,739	...	
		6. Salur	222	77,006	...	
		7. Ganapur	2,000	63,127	...	
		8. Royagadda	1,000	59,780	...	
		Total ...	4,998	928,068	...	
		Zemindaries—				
		Jeypore :—				
	Special Assistant Collector, Korapat.	1. Kirapad	8,500	132,655	...	
		2. Kolapa		80,034		
		3. Navarangapore		87,363		
		4. Malkangiri		12,801		
		Total ...	8,500	312,853	...	
		Grand Total ...	18,509	2,219,174	2,92,969	
			...	...	11,02,022	Zemindari revenue, for which Talukwar particulars are not known.
		Total ...	...	...	13,94,991	

STATEMENT X.—ESTATES UNDER THE CHARGE OF THE COURT OF WARDS AT THE END OF FASLI 1287.

[Referred to under the heading "Court of Wards."]

District.	Name of the Estate.	Name of the Ward.	Sex of the Ward.	Age of the Ward.	Date of Assumption of Charge.	Date when the Estate will probably be restored.	Demand for Fasli 1287.
							RS.
Chingleput	Soorangeri	V. S. Kristnaswamy Iyengar	Male.	14	September 1875 ...	April 1885 ...	4,000
Coimbatore	Samathur and Kottampatty ...	Kolandasawmy Vanavaroya Gownder ...	Do.	21	1st Oct. 1866 ...	4th August 1878 ...	10,351
Cuddapah	Chittecherla	Tari Gonda Venkatappa Nayanivaru ...	Do.	9	July 1878 ...	21st Feb. 1890 ...	1,160
Ganjam	Parla Kimedi	Viraprataparudra Gajapati Narayana Deo ...	Do.	48	July 1830	Not known ...	3,73,046
	Jalantra	Ramakrishna Chotroya Deo	Do.	18	November 1860 ...	13th May 1881 ...	28,610
	Serghar	Lakshmi Narasimha Sing Deo	Do.	16	August 1872 ...	27th April 1883 ...	16,181
	Chinna Kimedi or Pratapagiri ...	Stri Bruja Kisora Deo	Do.	9	January 1877 ...	24th June 1890 ...	78,832
						Total for Ganjam ...	4,96,669
Godavari	Nallamillapadu	Pasupati Jagannathamma	Do.	21	18th Jan. 1866 ...	June 1878 ...	888
	Kapaleswarapuram *cum* Kesevakurru.	Balasu Ramalakshmamma	Do.	16	27th Sept. 1869 ...	June 1883 ...	39,295
	Gopalpur	Stri Raja Vuppalapati Venkata Vizia Gopala Raz Garu.	Do.	14	8th Oct. 1874 ...	1st Feb. 1885 ...	65,957
						Total for Godavari ...	1,06,140
Kistna	Vasireddi Estate	Raja Vasireddi Venkatalakshmi Narasimhu Naidu Bahadur.	Do.	18	1st Sept. 1876 ...	July 1881 ...	208
	Nuzvid	Raja Rajagopala Appa Rao Bahadur ...	Do.	17	3rd Dec. 1877 ...	September 1882 ...	7,16,979
						Total for Kistna ...	7,17,187
Madura	Ramnad	Bhaskaraswamy Satupathy	Do.	10	15th March 1873 ...	October 1889 ...	6,89,219
	Bodinayakanur	Kumararaj Pondia Naiker	Do.	20	12th Feb. 1863 ...	9th Oct. 1879 ...	59,166
	Gantamanayakanur	Tirumala Guntama Kondala Nagiah Ramakrishnaswamy Naiker.	Do.	11	4th Nov. 1867 ...	24th Jan. 1888 ...	41,495
	Sundyur	Gopalakistna Ammal	Female.	56	16th Nov. 1871 ...	Not known ...	9,346
	Othappanaickanur	Tirumala Muthulinga Thumbia Veliasami Othappa Naiker.	Male.	20	14th June 1886 ...	14th June 1879 ...	9,998
						Total for Madura ...	8,09,224
Nellore	Chundi	Raja Ankappa Nayani Garu	Do.	20	9th March 1871 ...	October 1879 ...	50,592
North Arcot	Naragunti	Venkatachelapathy Nayanivaru	Do.	18	January 1867 ...	1st August 1881 ...	21,450
Salem	Yerumapati and Paliapolium ...	Kamatchi Ammal	Female.	27	22nd June 1874 ...	Not known ...	13,044
South Canara ...	Brahmavar	Sarvathama Row	Male.	8	October 1875 ...	December 1891 ...	4,838
	Kavanji Strinivasa Row's Estate ...	Strinivasa Row	Do.	17	May 1875 ...	August 1882 ...	2,599
						Total for South Canara ...	7,437
Tanjore	Vettangudi	Nallanayaga Rowtamunda Nayaniar	Do.	21	September 1873 ...	September 1877 ...	3,915
	Mannargudi	Guruvammal *alias* Sunderammal	Female.	19	April 1877 ...	1880 ...	4,248
						Total for Tanjore ...	8,163

STATEMENT X.—ESTATES UNDER THE CHARGE OF THE COURT OF WARDS AT THE END OF FASLI 1287—(*Continued*).

District.	Name of the Estate.	Name of the Ward.	Sex of the Ward.	Age of the Ward.	Date of Assumption of Charge.	Date when the Estate will probably be restored.	Demand for Fasli 1287.
							RS.
Tinnevelly	Maniyachi	Subramania Pondia Sokka Talavar	Male.	17	March 1866 ...	June 1882 ...	8,412
	Singampatti	Thennathe Pulinalakutti Siva Subbramania Talavar.	Do.	18	April 1867 ...	January 1881 ...	21,212
	Urkad Zemindari	Kotilinga Seturayar	Do.	18	July 1872	September 1881 ...	49,922
	Urkad Partible Property	Sivanananja Perumal Seturayar	Do.	21	November 1869 ...	July 1878 ...	1,048
	Sunderapatchiapuram	Ramaprasad	Do.	18	February 1876 ...	October 1881 ...	57,282
	Ettiyapuram	Muttu Jagavira Ramakumara Ettiappa Naiker.	Do.	21	January 1872 ...	1st August 1878 ...	2,95,236
						Total for Tinnevelly ...	3,81,112
Trichinopoly ...	Peramur	Madhava Rao	Do.	30	14th Dec. 1868 ...	Not known ...	9,799
Vizagapatam	Rewada	Vasanta Rao Venkata Lakshmi Narasimha Rao Puntulu.	Do.	17	March 1869 ...	20th Oct. 1882 ...	5,852
	Salur	Rajah Jagannatha Narayana Ramachendra Raj Pedda Baliyar Simhala Bahadur Garu.	Do.	20	October 1869 ...	25th May 1879 ...	1,04,164
	Merangi	Setrucherla Jagannad Raj Bahadur	Do.	10	December 1869 ...	1st Feb. 1889 ...	43,891
	Chemudu	Narasayyammi Pattamahadevi	Female.	48	17th July 1875 ...	October 1877 ...	12,764
	Pondur Mallaveram	Stri Raja Kakarlagundi Venkata Surya Narayana Niladi Raj Garu.	Male	14	July 1877 ...	1st April 1885 ...	3092
	Madgole	Stri Sceta Pattamahaden Garu	Female.	52	July 1877 ...	1st April 1885 ...	3,092
		Stri Neelamany Pattamahadevi Gru	Do.	48	May 1878 ...	Not known ...	1,498
	Chidikada Jaganatapuram	Stri Raja Muganti Bhaviemmi Garu	Do.	39	Do. ...	Do. ...	1,498
						Total for Vizagapatam ...	1,71,261
Malabar	Kavalpara	Parvathi Nithyar	Do.	12	July 1872 ...	May 1887	32,886
	Mangara	Kitingi Nayar	Male.	12	November 1877 ...	June 1886 ...	4,928
						Total for Malabar ...	37,814
					Grand Total for all estates and districts...		28,45,403

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